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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

INTRODUCTION OF DEVELOPMENTAL GROUP COUNSELLING AND ITS  
EFFECTS IN AN URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEM

by



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A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH  
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE  
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA  
SPRING, 1973





## ABSTRACT

Introduction of a model for developmental and preventative group counselling in the schools and assessment of the effectiveness of this group counselling in reducing the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation were the major concerns of the present study.

Traditionally, research in counselling has involved special groups such as underachievers, truants, or acting-out pupils. In this investigation, which was based on the premise that counselling should be available to all, subjects were selected randomly from the schools involved in the study. It was postulated that this procedure would reduce any stigma associated with counselling and would thus assist in making the introduction of the eclectic educational group counselling model more acceptable to all concerned.

Subjects were selected at random from a given grade in each of six representative schools from a large urban state-supported system. A total of approximately 100 students to receive developmental counselling in groups of six were thus selected. The counselling consisted of ten half-hour sessions held twice per week. All subjects in the counselled and equivalent size control groups were given the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire, the Internal-External Control Scale, and the Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale before, immediately after, and five months after counselling.

There were no significant findings on the scales to indicate the group counselling had been effective in reducing felt powerlessness.

Positive reactions from pupils, teachers, administrators, and parents, a high rate of attendance at counselling sessions and of





counsellors at in-service seminars were tentative indicators of successful introduction of this model of group counselling in the schools. One year after the program, all counsellors involved in the study were doing group counselling as part of their regular counselling program, with the support of administrators and teachers. Also, since there was no noticeable criticism or complaint from any persons involved, it seemed reasonable to conclude that the introduction of the group counselling model was successful for one year.





## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I express my appreciation to the many persons who willingly gave of their time and effort to assist me in completing this dissertation.

The encouragement and constructive criticism of my dissertation chairman, Dr. H.W. Zingle, and the committee members Drs. S.C.T. Clarke, A.M. Forcadas, D.W. Knowles, D.B. MacDougall, V.R. Nyberg, are gratefully acknowledged.

I thank the pupils, staff, and administration of the ten schools who cooperated in this study. The counsellors and pupil personnel staff are appreciated for their assistance, time, and expertise during the investigation.

Mr. W. Bober, Dr. M. Grant, and Miss T. Cossitt of the Edmonton Catholic School System provided frequent consultation. Miss M. Cossitt and Dr. J. Harris devoted many hours to editing the manuscript. I would like also to express my appreciation to Drs. J. Bishop, D. Fair, M. Taylor Pearce, and W. Talley for their advice and help.

To Drs. H.M. Leard, D.B. MacDougall, P.J. Patsula, and Mr. R.B. Patsula I express a special and deep appreciation for devoting very many hours of their time, often with very short notice, to provide highly significant help and encouragement to me.

I express my gratitude to my mother and father who have given so much, so generously, for so long, in contributing to my education.

Finally, I have a deep appreciation for my wife, Duane, and for our three sons Peter, Thomas and David who were so understanding, patient, and helpful during the entire period of this study.





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## CHAPTER I

### MAJOR RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The major problems examined in this study were (1) development and implementation of a functional model of group counselling in a large urban state-supported school system, and (2) assessment of the efficacy of group counselling in reduction of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation.

### RATIONALE FOR A DEVELOPMENTAL AND PREVENTATIVE COUNSELLING PROGRAM

The concept of group counselling employed in this study was based on the premise that counselling in schools is an integral part of the total educative process, not a therapeutic adjunct, and as such must be consistent with the philosophy and objectives of the school system in which it operates (Dinkmeyer, 1968). Counselling assists in the development of ego strength by reinforcing pupils' assets and helping them cope more effectively with weaknesses (Maslow, 1954). Counselling is a planned program of cooperation among people in the school and community to assist all pupils in their adjustment, not merely the deviant (Christensen, 1969; Dinkmeyer, 1968; Wrenn, 1962).

Pupils need to grow in self-understanding, mature in social relationships, develop independence, become more able to deal with threat, and acquire the feeling that they are significant human beings. These needs are central to the rationale for developmental and preventative counselling for all school children. This position is essentially the



same as that of Dinkmeyer and Caldwell (1970). A review of the literature, examination of various programs, and consultation with authorities in the field, however, reveal that a counselling program of this kind, although widely advocated, is extremely rare.

Development of ego strength, not just ego repair, is achieved through encouragement that helps children develop their competencies (Tiedeman, 1968). Encouragement means accepting the person because of his existence as a human being, as he is now, not a conditional acceptance based on the person modifying his behavior to satisfy others. "Encouragement is one of the most important aspects of any corrective effort (Dinkmeyer & Dreikurs, 1963, p. vii)." Ego strengthening by encouragement appears to be congruent with the concept of primary prevention described by Bower (1965), who states that one must define

...primary prevention of mental and emotional disorders as operationally as possible; it is any specific biological, social, or psychological intervention which promotes or enhances mental and emotional robustness, or reduces the incidence and prevalence of learning and behavior disorders in the population at large (p. 832)

#### RATIONALE FOR GROUP COUNSELLING

Group counselling complements individual counselling (Ohlsen, 1968; Super, 1949); it is not a substitute for it. Some feel it facilitates individual counselling (Combs, Cohn, Gibian, & Sniffen, 1963; Driver, 1954).





Man is a social being whose basic goal is to belong. The manner in which the child fits into his basic group, the family, has a strong influence on how he perceives new experiences. Children learn the basic elements of social development within the family group. This development continues in a succession of peer and other groups in which the child must find his place. The method the child employs is in keeping with his concept of himself and his interpretation of life. Adler terms this interpretation the life style, which is conceptualized as a basic theme underlying all the individual's behavior. Thus by observing the dynamics of the child in the group the counsellor is assisted in understanding the child's goals and life style, which would be variously manifested in all groups in which the child participated. Dreikurs and Sonstegard (1968) felt that since the authority of adults has largely been replaced by the authority of the group, the group is an essential setting in which the child in a democratic society may be influenced.

... the impact of the group on each child is readily observed whenever he participates within it. The use of the group to influence the child not only constitutes an effective way to teach but also an effective means of exerting corrective influences. Group techniques are imperative in a democratic society where the authority of the adult has been replaced by the authority of the group. The group is the reality in which the child operates (p. 278).

Children in group settings see that others have similar problems and concerns and are encouraged by the feeling that they are not very different from others. It appears that attitudinal or behavioral change may be more effective in groups because of the strength of peer identification (Asch, 1952; Bossard, 1956; Combs, 1963; Sherif, 1952).



Combs, et al. (1963) gave further support to the rationale for group counselling:

It seems to be more readily accepted by students in that, since it occurs within a peer group, it is not as "different" or as threatening to them as individual counseling. ... In dealing with several students simultaneously, it spreads the effect of the counselor and at the same time preserves his effectiveness (p. 18).

#### THE FELT POWERLESSNESS DIMENSION OF ALIENATION AND ITS RELATION TO THE GROUP COUNSELLING

The proliferation of articles appearing in the press and other public media, as well as those in behavioral science journals, reflects widespread interest in alienation.

When the individual cannot relate to essential aspects of his environment, especially where the relationship is to be expected, (English & English, 1958) alienation occurs. The complexity of alienation is evidenced by the many scholars (David, 1955; Fromm, 1955; Goldman, 1968; Horney, 1949; Patsula, 1968, 1969; Seeman, 1959) who have attempted to describe, define, and operationalize the concept. The present study was confined to the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation.

Seeman (1959) conceptualized alienation as having five facets: powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. He thus attempted to provide an approach that ties historical interest in alienation to modern research. Felt powerlessness refers to "the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcements, he seeks (p. 784)." In his conception of powerless-





ness, Seeman was not referring to objectively observable conditions in society, but to the individual's internal perception of them. Seeman's concept of felt powerlessness is equated with Rotter's concept of external control (Minton, 1968). In Rotter's social learning theory individuals are viewed as being on a continuum from internal to external locus of control. Persons exhibiting an external locus of control (externals) are those who are more prone to perceive outcomes across varying situations as being attributable to outside forces such as chance, luck, fate, more powerful others, task characteristics, or the complexity of the world (Patsula, 1969). Individuals on the internal end of the continuum are more likely to believe that what happens to them in a given situation is essentially the result of their own efforts. They perceive that they are effective agents in determining the occurrence of reinforcements relative to their own behavior and that the outcomes are a result of their actions. Internals feel they have control of their own destiny, whereas externals essentially feel that outside influences control their fate.

In Rotter's social learning theory, a reinforcement is anything that "acts to strengthen an expectancy that a particular behavior or event will be followed by that reinforcement in the future (Rotter, 1966, p. 2)." Thus, the individual's particular history of reinforcement would strongly influence the degree to which he attributed reinforcements to his own actions, and Rotter theorized that a generalized expectancy of locus of control is developed in the person.

A generalized attitude, belief, or expectancy regarding the nature of the causal relationship between one's own behavior and its consequences might affect a variety of behavioral choices in a broad band of like situations. Such generalized expectancies in combination



with specific expectancies act to determine choice behavior along with the value of potential reinforcements (Rotter, 1966, p. 2).

Rotter has helped develop a scale, designed to measure felt powerlessness, which has been used in considerable research. This scale, the I-E Scale, was used in the present study.

Rotter's and Adler's theories have considerable congruence, especially in the area of powerlessness. A basic concept of Adler's Individual Psychology is striving for success, or power over one's environment (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). The young child has little power in relation to the general environment and to older persons in his milieu, and this provides the origin of feelings of powerlessness, helplessness, or inferiority which Adler felt all individuals have to some degree throughout their lives. The healthy person strives to overcome feelings of powerlessness through cooperative socially positive behavior characterized by power or mastery over tasks in the environment. The neurotic person approaches life's jobs with inadequately developed social interest. Adler described social interest as an innate potential which is developed in family and other group living. This lack of social interest in a neurotic may result in a disposition to gain power over others rather than over one's environment. This is essentially similar to Nietzsche's concept of the neurotic "will to power" which influenced Adler's development of the concept of neurotic striving (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956, p. 111).

Numerous and substantial parallels exist between Rotter's and Adler's theories. Rotter credits Adler and Lewin as major contributors to his theoretical position (Leifcourt, 1966a). Adler's description of the neurotic's life style which "demands categorically that if he fails,





it should be through someone else's fault and that he should be freed from personal responsibility (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956)," indicates an externally oriented person. Rotter's concept of internal control parallels Adler's idea of powerfulness, being-at-home-in-the-world, and self-esteem, while the feeling of external control parallels feelings of powerlessness, failure, inferiority, and being-as-if-in-enemy-country (Patsula, 1969). Minton (1968) also developed the comparison between Adler and Rotter in indicating that research with Rotter's I-E scale, discussed subsequently in this study, had produced empirical evidence for Adler's socially useful type of person (social interest plus activity) in terms of a positive relation "between an attitude of internal control and an action mode of pro-social behavior (p. 52)." There is an inverse relationship between external control and pro-social behavior. The connection between Adler and Rotter was summed up by Patsula (1969).

It is through Rotter and Adler that one is provided with a link between powerlessness as a research concept in social learning theory and powerlessness as an essential feature of psychotherapeutic practice (p. 7).

The principal aim of the counselling described in this study was to attempt to move pupils toward the internal control (felt powerfulness) end of the continuum by means of group counselling that emphasized the encouragement process. Lefcourt (1966a) further supported reduction of felt powerlessness

... where discouragement, or external control, is an important part of psychopathology, encouragement, or a shifting toward belief in internal control, indeed becomes important... (p. 191).

Patsula (1969, pp. 1 & 7), and Minton (1968, p. 52), also advocated



an increase in felt powerfulness or internality as one of the major goals of counselling.

#### PARTICULAR SIGNIFICANCE OF THE VARIABLES OF THIS STUDY

The felt powerlessness dimension of alienation which can be variously termed external locus of control or externality has been shown to correlate negatively with achievement (Crandall, Katkovsky, & Crandall, 1965), knowledge attainment (Seeman & Evans, 1962), use of previous experiences to solve novel problems (Lefcourt, 1966b; Phares, 1962), and to facilitating anxiety and constructive responses to frustration (Butterfield, 1964).

#### SUMMARY

The major research questions, introduction of group counselling in a school system, and assessment of the efficacy of group counselling, were presented. An approach to counselling was given, followed by a *raison d'être* for group counselling. Felt powerlessness and its relation to group counselling in this study were examined. The importance of the variables under consideration was demonstrated by reference to previous research.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### WHAT ALIENATION IS

Alienation is widely considered in scholarly texts and journals as well as in popular magazines, on radio, and on television.

Josephson and Josephson (1962) indicated that many psychologists and sociologists consider it as the central problem of our time. A phenomenon as deeply ingrained and as widespread in our culture as alienation is lends itself to many meanings.

... alienation has been used by philosophers, psychologists and sociologists to refer to an extraordinary variety of psycho-social disorders, including loss of self, anxiety states, anomie, despair, depersonalization, rootlessness, apathy, social disorganization, loneliness, atomization, powerlessness, meaninglessness, isolation, pessimism, and the loss of beliefs or values (Josephson, 1962, p. 13).

Thus it is seen that alienation, like anxiety, has been used in a plethora of contexts to describe widely varying individuals, groups, and situations.

A brief historical description of alienation will be followed by dictionary and social-science meanings and the section will be concluded with Seeman's five-facet definition of the term, which includes the definition of felt powerlessness used in this study.

Hegel described man's separation or detachment from the world of nature and from himself in abstract ontological terms. Marx made alienation concrete in terms of the social reality of the laborer's alienation brought about by the Industrial Revolution. Man was now alienated from the products of his labor, and from other men, by the





process of industrial production, and from himself, self-estrangement, by the fact that he sold his labor for a price as a commodity. Weber extended Marx's idea to include soldiers, scientists, civil servants, and others, thus making the concept of alienation more universal among men.

A contemporary psychologist, Eric Fromm, has made alienation a central theme in his book, The Sane Society. Man suffers from a marketing orientation (Fromm, 1955, p. 125) in which he regards his world, including himself, as objects to be bought and sold. Individuals employed by big business have to relocate frequently and must leave families and friends behind without fear or regret. They find it difficult to establish sincere friendships which necessitate commitment to reciprocal obligations (Warner & Abegglen, 1955, p. 90).

English and English (1958) defined alienation as the "loss or lack of relationship, especially where the relationship is to be expected (p. 22)." Chaplin's Dictionary of Psychology (1968) described three aspects of alienation as (1) "the feeling of apartness; strangeness"; (2) "the absence of warm or friendly relationships with people"; (3) "a separation of the individual from the real self because of preoccupation with abstractions and the necessity for conformity to the wishes of others and the dictates of social institutions (p. 18)."

Lang gave a comprehensive definition in A Dictionary of the Social Sciences (Gould & Kolb, 1964):

Alienation, as most generally used in social science, denotes an estrangement or separation between parts or the whole of the personality and significant aspects of the world of experience.

Within this general denotation the term may refer to (a) an objective state of estrangement or separation; (b) the state of feeling of the estranged personality; (c) a motivational state



tending toward estrangement.

The separation denoted by the term may be between (a) the self and the objective world; (b) the self and aspects of the self that have become separated and placed over against the self, e.g., alienated labour; (c) the self and the self (p. 19).

The social science literature generally describes alienation in one or more of four forms; man's alienation from nature, from other men, from his institutions, or from himself (self-estrangement).

These forms may actually represent four phases of one process (Pappenheim, 1967; Patsula, 1968).

The various synonyms of alienation have a prime position in studies of human relations. Contemporary social scientists employ unattached, marginal, obsessive, normless, and isolated, to refer to the alienated (Nisbet, 1953, p. 15).

Social scientists, in attempting to relate alienation to other facets of human life, have suggested numerous possible correlates such as: "apathy, authoritarianism, conformity, cynicism, hoboism, political apathy, political hyperactivity, prejudice, privation, psychosis, regression, and suicide (Dean, 1961, pp. 753-54)." Further numerous references to alienation are implicit rather than explicit and the same author may include several nuances of meaning. Therefore, it seems essential to define alienation and its various components with sufficient clarity to be tested by empirical research.

#### WHAT FELT POWERLESSNESS IS

In an attempt to provide an organized way of viewing the concept of alienation and to render it more amenable to empirical observation, Seeman (1959) developed a five-fold classification: powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. His





classification considers alienation from the personal view of the individual. It refers to the social-psychological state of the person and is not a referent of objective environmental conditions or of the etiology of factors contributing to alienation. Further, Seeman has explicitly cast his meanings of alienation in a form consistent with Rotter's Social Learning Theory to try to bridge the gap between learning theory and sociology. Seeman considers powerlessness the most frequently used facet of alienation in the current literature and accordingly lists it first in his classification schema. Powerlessness is the "expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcements he seeks (Seeman, 1959, p. 784)."

This definition does not include:

(a) the objective situation of powerlessness as some observer sees it, (b) the observer's judgment of that situation against some ethical standard, and (c) the individual's sense of a discrepancy between his expectations for control and his desire for control (Seeman, 1959, p. 784).

Rotter has used "external locus of control" to describe essentially the same phenomenon. Correspondingly, Rotter uses "internal locus of control" to describe the orientation or feeling of powerfulness.

Individuals exhibiting external control are those who are more apt to perceive outcomes across varying situations as being attributable to outside forces such as: chance, fate, supernatural powers, more powerful others, task or situation characteristics, the complexity and/or unpredictability of people and/or the world (Patsula, 1969, p. 2). In the present study Seeman's concept of powerlessness or external control was described operationally by the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR), the Internal-External Control Scale



(I-E), and the Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (EPPS). These scales are described in chapter three of the present study.

Research, reported subsequently, indicated that the individual's feeling of powerlessness affects his performance in a wide variety of situations and tasks.

## GENERAL RAMIFICATIONS OF FELT POWERLESSNESS

### Theoretical

Research into the etiology and structure of felt powerlessness is far from complete (Patsula, 1969; Rotter, 1966), but is an area under considerable investigation at present. This makes theorizing more tentative and subject to empirical verification.

It is a moot question whether the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation should be studied as an entity or whether an attempt should be made to break the concept down into smaller, more precise components to render it more amenable to research. The present study was limited to consideration of felt powerlessness as operationally defined by the scales employed.

Felt powerlessness can be conceived of as developing in terms of several facets which are related but not identical. One facet involves the belief that the world is unpredictable or is nondeterministic and therefore that luck determines a person's success or failure. Secondly, a person can feel that events are predetermined and cannot be changed or altered and hence has the attitude that fate determines the significant outcomes in life. Thirdly, a person can believe in the power of other individuals, especially those in authority, such as teachers,



parents, police, and government officials, and conclude that "I am relatively weak or powerless to control my destiny." A fourth consideration is the complexity of the world. It is so complex and changing so rapidly that one cannot really understand or make sense of it, and thus the world is unpredictable.

A person with a high degree of felt powerfulness is likely to:

- (1) be more involved in situations he sees as depending on his skill rather than situations he perceives as depending on chance factors,
- (2) focus on those aspects of his environment which are potentially useful for his future success, (3) see his own behavior essentially determining what happens to him, and (4) try to better environmental conditions by social action. The person with a high degree of felt powerlessness would tend to exhibit opposite behavior patterns. It is plausible other dimensions of felt powerlessness exist and will be described in future research.

The etiology of felt powerlessness is further explored later in this chapter in the section on "Felt Powerlessness in a School Setting."

### Empirical

The present writer postulated that individuals with a high degree of felt powerlessness would be less attentive to those aspects of the environment which are personally relevant and potentially useful for future behavior. Seeman and Evans (1962) found that male tuberculosis patients high in powerlessness learned significantly less about their illness and hospital life than did those who were low in powerlessness. Seeman extended his research to other populations under varying condi-





tions within the United States and in Sweden with a substantial consistency of results. In every study of this extended research the group low in powerlessness learned significantly more information relative to the control of their present environment. Seeman's 1963 study involved prisoners in the United States. Those high in powerlessness learned significantly less parole-relevant information. In 1966 Seeman studied manual and non-manual workers in Sweden and found that, in both groups, there was a negative correlation between powerlessness and political knowledge. In 1967 Seeman found Swedish college students who were low in powerlessness performed significantly better on control-relevant information such as knowledge of nuclear power and of political events, but did not differ from the high powerlessness group in knowledge of cultural affairs.

It would appear worthwhile to determine whether the degree of felt powerlessness has measureable behavioral codeterminants. Is there a correlation between an individual's attitude of powerlessness and his behavior that can be demonstrated? Gore and Rotter (1963), and Strickland (1965) found that individuals who scored low in felt powerlessness had a greater willingness for, commitment to, and action in civil rights movements.

The present writer theorized that internals would prefer relying on their own skills rather than chance factors because of their greater feeling of control. Rotter and Mulry (1965) found that internals and externals differed in the value placed on the same reward depending upon whether the reward was perceived as contingent upon luck or skill. Their results showed significant interaction between internal-external control and chance versus skill instruction among 120 college students, with



internals taking longer with skill instructions and externals taking longer with chance instructions.

Members of minority groups such as Indians and Negroes do have less control over many of the reinforcements they seek. This is evidenced by higher drop-out rates, lower economic status, and greater unemployment of minority groups. If felt powerlessness is at least somewhat consistent with reality, it should be reflected in members of these minorities being, in the main, higher in felt powerlessness. In a tri-ethnic study reported in 1961, Graves found that, among high-school students, the Indians, the Spanish Americans, and the whites were ranked in that order on felt powerlessness. Many observers (Dean, 1961; Franklin, 1963; Lefcourt & Ladwig, 1966; Patsula, 1968; Seeman & Evans, 1962) have found that lower socioeconomic groups scored higher in powerlessness. Thus it could be argued that minority groups, who are more heavily represented in the lower end of the socioeconomic continuum, owe their greater feeling of external control to the socioeconomic factor alone. Battle and Rotter (1963), however, found that members of minorities had significantly greater feelings of powerlessness when they controlled for socioeconomic status and intelligence.

Coleman (1964) speculated on the significance of Seeman's and others' findings regarding the widely demonstrated effects of felt powerlessness by indicating how Puerto Ricans, who generally arrived in New York later than Negroes, had leapfrogged over the Negroes in socioeconomic achievement. Coleman postulated that the southern Negro's background, which was one in which he was virtually totally dependent on (i.e., external locus of control) the farm or plantation master, would be an important and lasting variable which could have a significant effect on the Negro's





relative lack of success in adapting to urban life, which has the essential characteristic of thrusting the individual on his own resources. Later (1966) Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPortland, Mood, Weinfeld, and York found further significant empirical evidence of felt powerlessness in an extensive study of equality of educational opportunity. It is important to note that this concept accounted for more of the variance in achievement of school children than any other single variable.

### FELT POWERLESSNESS IN A SCHOOL SETTING

#### Theoretical

It can be seen from the previous discussion of the general theoretical ramifications of felt powerlessness that the reasons postulated for felt powerlessness can result in complex and varying combinations when attempting to analyze a particular individual's basis for his feeling of powerlessness. When the variable of incomplete personality development of school children is added, the situation becomes more difficult. One can, however, theorize from clinical observation that children do behave in ways which suggest there are individuals who differ somewhat consistently in regard to their perception of the degree of control they have over their environment. Citing individuals at the extremes to illustrate, one can observe, even in preschool children, those who quite consistently actively seek to modify and control their environment in terms of both human and non-human interaction, in contrast to those children who typically wait to see what people or other aspects of the environment will do to or for them.



Some children, for example, act as though they believe that their own effort is the major determinant of their achievement reinforcements, while others behave as though they are the "pawns of fate" or are at the mercy of the whims of others (Crandall, Katkovsky, & Preston, 1962, p. 649).

It appears that the child's attempts to find his place or mode of interacting within his first group, the family, results in an early differentiation of expectancy of control of reinforcements by the fact that parents and possibly older siblings do vary in the degree or the amount of control they exert on children. Indeed, Patsula (1969) has theorized and generated empirical evidence to suggest a relation between the parental antecedent of psychological control and a general feeling of powerlessness among eighth-grade children. Katkovsky, Crandall, and Good (1967) found in children 6 to 12 years of age a positive correlation between parental behavior (rated by observers) of dominance and rejection, and felt powerlessness.

When the child enters school he has to establish his relationship with the teacher and other pupils. These new relationships can strengthen or weaken previous concepts of felt powerlessness. To the writer's knowledge, no definitive studies have ascertained the impact of the school in modifying the individual's feeling of powerlessness in the early grades. However, Crandall and her colleagues have developed a scale, the Children's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale, IAR, and presented empirical evidence (Crandall, Katkovsky, & Crandall, 1965) that children do have identifiable differences in perception of locus of control in regard to academic achievement, at least as early as the third grade.



It was postulated by the present writer that basic characteristics theorized and observed in adults who have a high degree of felt powerfulness will apply, to some extent, to children.

#### Empirical

In a study of children in grades one, two, and three, Crandall, et al., (1962) found that children's feelings of locus of control more frequently predicted their achievement behaviors than five other predictors (need achievement reflected in TAT stories, Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale, expectations of success in intellectual achievement situations, and minimal intellectual achievement standards). Although the high-internal boys spent more time in free-play activity of an intellectual nature, and exhibited more intense striving in these activities than did low internals, significant relationships were not found for girls.

Crandall, et al., found (1965) significant positive correlations in the .20's and .30's between internality or powerfulness and report card grades in grades 6, 8, 10, and 12. Cellura (1963) reported boys to have a positive relation between internality and arithmetic achievement scores, with I.Q. controlled for.

Of specific relevance to counselling in the schools is the fact that felt powerlessness has been found to correlate positively with anxiety and frustration in school children.

Butterfield (1964) correlated the Internal-External Control Scale (I-E) with the Alpert-Haber Achievement Anxiety Test (AAT) and reported significant relationships with both parts of the AAT;  $r = .61$  ( $p < .01$ ) with debilitating anxiety (AAT Deb) and  $r = -.82$  ( $p < .01$ ) with





facilitating anxiety (AAT Fac). Further, Watson (1967) replicated the study with a much larger sample (648 compared to Butterfield's 47 subjects) of college students at the University of Toronto and found significant, though smaller, correlations between anxiety and felt powerlessness.

By far the most significant and substantive relationships between felt powerfulness and school achievement were found in the Coleman, et al. (1966) study of Equality of Educational Opportunity. This study of more than 650,000 pupils indicated that locus of control accounted for more of the variance in school achievement than any other attitudinal, familial, school, or teacher variable. Coleman explicitly stated that a change toward an internal locus of control or felt powerfulness should be one of the most important tasks of the schools.

#### WHY ATTEMPT TO REDUCE FELT POWERLESSNESS?

Previously described theory and empirical evidence indicated that individuals high in felt powerlessness or external locus of control generally achieve less in academic knowledge and knowledge relevant for control in their specific situation although a specific cause and effect relationship has not been definitely established. These individuals are more susceptible to subtle attempts to manipulate them. Externals tend to take less action in politics and other control-relevant areas. Finally, they have a higher degree of debilitating anxiety than internals. Thus it would appear efficacious to attempt to reduce felt powerlessness in school children.

A caution is that some individuals toward the extreme internal end



of the continuum may be essentially unrealistic or maladjusted in that they manifest a need to feel an exaggerated sense of control (Rotter, 1966, p. 4).

However, since it is very plausible that many persons at the high internal end of the continuum actually feel very much in control, it appears that a general reduction of felt powerlessness would be desirable. Lefcourt (1966a) supports this,

... there is no doubt of the relevance of perceived locus of control to the goals of psychotherapy: greater competence, courage and approach tendencies....By providing us with a theoretically meaningful cluster of attitudes and behaviors that may serve as a criterion of change, the locus of control construct may allow us to evaluate the effects of psychotherapy more effectively (p. 193).

Further support for a general reorientation of our schools to provide a milieu that is more responsive to the behavior and action of children, and in which educators create specific learning situations where children can learn to see these connections between their actions and the rewards they receive, is powerfully stated by Coleman in reference to Seeman's findings in the 1963 prison study (c.f. p. 17).

....If these findings are true, then they hold important implications for policy matters, particularly in education. They imply that the most important element to learn for survival in urban society is how to take responsibility for one's self....Seeman's results also indicate how this can be taught--by making the environment one in which the responses are contingent upon the individual's own behavior (Coleman, 1964, p. 78).



## GROUP COUNSELLING AS A PLAUSIBLE MEANS OF REDUCING FELT POWERLESSNESS

### Theoretical

The group is the reality in which the child functions. Beginning with the family a person belongs to a series of groups as he passes through life. The influence of the peer group is very strong. Evidence of this is demonstrated by the amount of time pupils spend in peer groups, and the volume and intensity of comments they make regarding their favorable and unfavorable experiences in peer groups. Lewin (1947), after several studies, concluded that behavior is usually easier to change when a group is used than by working with individuals.

It appears that this interest in or cathexis to the peer group has various fluctuations (as do the vast majority of phenomena social psychologists are concerned with), but generally increases from the age of 3 or 4 until it peaks in junior high school (i.e., ages 12 - 15). Numerous studies attest the strength of group influence (Asch, 1952; Sherif, 1952). Other research emphasizes the strength of the peer influence as compared to that of significant adults (Berenda, 1950; Jennings, 1951). MacDougall (1969) indicates the junior high as a "peak" in peer influence.

That conduct and beliefs of students can be powerfully influenced by small groups within the classroom is obvious to the experienced educator (Trow, Zander, Morse, & Jenkins, 1950). Deficiencies in the usual methods of teaching are often caused by ineffective and unskilled handling of group procedures. Thus, it behooves educators to concentrate considerable effort on making optimal use of this potential





force, the small group, to assist in the educational process.

The fact that people, adults or children, come together in groups is no guarantee that results will be positive for the members or society at large. The existence of many groups whose aims are selfish (e.g., criminal elements) or are inimical to the existence of our society (anarchists) are obvious indications of the fact that society at large may not benefit from some groups. The recent emergence and widespread use of sensitivity groups led by leaders of greatly varying competence and experience has lead to some negative as well as positive results. Muro (1971) emphasizes this, "However, numerous professionals have become increasingly concerned with the fact that the group with its potential for promoting growth possesses equal potential for producing harm (p. 186)." Muro further indicates concern by pointing out that seventeen States have deemed it necessary to initiate acts designed to regulate the use of certain types of group activities.

It would appear the group is a potentially powerful force in influencing human behavior. Further, people in groups do not universally act for the commonweal or show social interest, and thus it is reasonable to have some direction and structure to achieve stated objectives. "The use of the group in positive ways predicts the minimization of useless or destructive group activity (MacDougall, 1969, p. 31)."

Improved communication between pupils and teachers could improve the overall relationship between them. If the dichotomy between pupils and teachers could be reduced or eliminated, and both could more fully cooperate in working toward the common goal of solving tasks or problems associated with learning, the educational process would be enhanced (MacDougall, 1969).



The present writer suggests that a safe cooperative atmosphere encourages students and adults to explore possible solutions to their problems. The group approach that emphasizes that one can learn from mistakes helps reduce the anxiety associated with the possibility of being wrong or being "queered out." Further, it is theorized that problems between pupils and teachers which arise out of incomplete or misunderstood communication have a higher likelihood of being resolved in the atmosphere of a small group than in a regular classroom, and therefore teachers will be invited to participate in the groups when group members and the counsellor mutually agree.

### Empirical

Group counselling is currently widely practiced and studied. Indeed Gazda and Larsen (1968) surveyed the literature on group counselling, excluding masters' theses, and found 104 studies of group counselling during the 1962-1967 period. They excluded group-therapy studies from their survey. Gazda indicated the relative infancy of research on group counselling:

Although descriptive studies have their place in generating research hypotheses, the relatively large number being reported suggests the relative infancy of research in group counseling (Gazda & Larsen, 1968, p. 58).

Thus, because of the "newness" of group counselling it is not surprising to find many of the studies reviewed in this six-year survey have design weaknesses. Some important design flaws included: assignment randomly to groups reported in only 45 percent of the studies; no use of control groups in 15 percent; and theoretical positions and treatment



processes described by very few.

Prediger and Baumann (1970), in their review of group counselling research, acknowledged that the results of group counselling have not been unequivocally favourable but that,

Taken together...these studies provide a promising, albeit fragmentary, picture of the potential of developmental group counseling (p. 527).

Prediger and Baumann (1970) reported the results of a well-designed study of developmental group counselling. They had an adequate number ( $N=416$ , experimental = 205, control = 211) of randomly selected vocational high-school students who were counselled in groups of six to eight for one forty-minute period per week for a full academic year. The results showed no significant differences between the counselled and non-counselled group on the thirty criterion measures. A student opinion survey, however, administered after termination of counselling, indicated that the students in group counselling found their experience more worthwhile than those in the placebo and control groups.

Hinds (1970) found significant differences favoring counselled groups, using a learning theory approach, to increase adaptive behavior and decrease interfering behavior in group-counselled elementary pupils. However, it should be noted that these pupils were referred for counselling because of behaviors interfering with classroom learning.

Very few studies have been reported in which counselling is employed as a method of reducing felt powerlessness or externality. Dua (1970) reported a significant decrease in externality in a group of ten university women who were given eight hours of "Behaviorally Oriented Action" counselling. The fact that three groups of ten females each were





"assigned to three matched groups (p. 568)," weakens the design because of the small number in each group, the fact that all were females, and finally because matching is not an adequate alternative to random assignment (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 15). Dua's other treatment group received "Psychotherapy Reeducation" and showed no significant differences over the no-treatment control group.

Warner (1970) used verbal-reinforcement and model-reinforcement group counselling with high-school students who were one standard deviation above the mean on Dean's alienation scale. Both verbal and model-reinforcement groups showed significantly decreased felt powerlessness when compared to placebo and control groups. Further, there was no significant difference between placebo and control groups. However the model-reinforcement and verbal-reinforcement groups were compared, as a single entity, to the placebo and no-treatment control group. This procedure is questionable because a placebo group and a no-treatment control group could conceivably have different effects on students. Conceivably the model-reinforcement and verbal-reinforcement groups should be treated separately because of potentially differing effects.

In summary, the literature indicates a large number of studies of group counselling, many of them with errors in design and/or statistical treatment, with some showing statistical significance in favor of the counselled groups. Very few developmental studies are reported and of those, the majority do not show results which clearly demonstrate the effectiveness of group counselling. Also, the vast majority of studies are not replicated. At this point in time, the research on group counselling has not consistently demonstrated its general effectiveness, but has indicated that at certain times under certain



conditions, with certain criteria group counselling is effective. Clearly, developmental group counselling for the 'average' pupil is in its infancy as far as formal study is concerned.

# ECLECTIC EDUCATIONAL APPROACH TO GROUP COUNSELLING AS A PLAUSIBLE MEANS OF REDUCING THE FELT POWERLESSNESS OF ALIENATION

Persons who come for counselling often indicate a feeling of helplessness or powerlessness in overcoming specific problems and/or general life situations. The basic approach of the present study was use of encouragement to help the person move toward the felt powerfulness or internal locus of control end of the continuum and thus lower alienation.

Alienation was earlier defined as the lack of relationship or belonging, and a central tenet of the group counselling of the present study is man's basic need to belong to a group or groups. Man is a social being whose potential can only be fully actualized by being involved with other men in group living. Interaction occurs in groups whenever the behavior of one person directly affects the attitudes, feelings, and behavior of another or others (Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1971, p. 3).

Man is basically a helpless or powerless being at birth. He needs the help or cooperation of others for his most basic necessities of food, clothing, and shelter. Therefore early in life he becomes increasingly aware of his inferiority compared to the more powerful people and forces of the environment around him. From this feeling of weakness there "arises a need for support, a demand for affection, a physiologi-



cal and psychological dependency and submission (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956, pp. 47-48)." Thus arises the "striving for superiority" based on a feeling of "inferiority" which Adler describes extensively in his basic theory of Individual Psychology. It is postulated that man devotes energy, in varying degrees, throughout his life to overcoming these feelings of inferiority. One way of accomplishing this is by striving for superiority over life's tasks and problems, with the cooperation and the commonweal of his fellow man paramount (Adler's social interest or *gemeinschaftsgefühl*). The other path is reflected in attaining superiority by outperforming others--by directly trying to appear better than one's fellows--by putting others down or showing superiority over others rather than over life's tasks. It is postulated that all men are born "neutral" but with an innate potential for social interest. The mother is usually the key person to develop social interest in the child. Adler believed all maladjustment, from mild neurosis to severe psychosis to criminal perversions, could be attributed to a lack of development of social interest (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956, p. 129). The general theory of social science emphasizes the dilemma of what is good for the individual versus what is good for society. Adlerian theory would largely avoid that dilemma by insisting that a truly cooperative person with a high degree of social interest would obviously benefit society, but would also be well adjusted himself in the process.

The individual's style of life includes all of a man's behavior as he attempts to reduce his basic inferiority and attain his goal of superiority. Adler compared it to a symphony in which man's behavior becomes the notes and the theme is the life style. The "individual's





life-style is always expressed in his social transactions and psychological movement with others (Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1971, p. 4)."

That man is unitary or indivisible is another pillar underlying this approach to counselling. He is more than the sum of his parts; he is a dynamic creative unity and any attempt to fragment or divide him is useless. Man is also unique in his life style and hence in his needs.

The in-service program to facilitate eclectic educational group counselling was structured by an overall plan for the total of eight sessions. The co-leaders adopted a series of readings to augment the experiences of the sessions. Sessions one and two were more highly structured to facilitate the counsellors' effectiveness in beginning the actual group counselling. An essential consideration of the in-service rationale was to create an atmosphere which encouraged the counsellors to be authentic. The importance of creating an in-service atmosphere where the counsellors are actually free to choose what they can and still be genuine is aptly stated by Carl Rogers (1962), "I have sometimes wondered if this (genuineness) is the only quality which matters in a counselling relationship...(p. 419)." Finally, the title of and content in the book entitled The Authentic Counselor, (Pietrofesa, Leonard, & Van Hoose, 1971) reflects the authors' primary concern with the development and nurturance of genuineness in counsellors.

Usher (1972) cogently summarizes reasons for the creation of an authentic atmosphere.

An extensive review of previous research reveals that: (1) knowing is not enough for a professional in order for him to be effective; (2) there are no methods that are clearly superior to any other methods; and (3) there are no specific traits



or characteristics that are exclusively identified with professional effectiveness or ineffectiveness. What these kinds of findings tell us is what should have been obvious in the first place: that professionals are unique people who learn to use themselves and the situation at hand in highly unique ways to accomplish purposes. There is no one best way to counsel. There is no one best personality for a counselor. There is no guarantee that knowledge will make any difference in one's counseling abilities. These things we now know (p. 37).

The in-service approach is clearly educational and not therapeutic. It is consistent with the model suggested by Christensen (1969). Christensen's focus is on mutual cooperation, fostered by the encouragement process, and based on the premise that man is goal-directed and his prime goal is belonging through social interest, which, if not sufficiently developed, leads to maladaptive behavior.

The counsellor has the responsibility of initially setting the atmosphere or tone of the group to be oriented in a positive manner. He is directive and is an educator in the "Fourth R," human relations. The counsellor uses present interests and concerns of group members as discussion material for the Fourth R. The emphasis is on commonality, with the counsellor ever alert to ways of building on members' contributions by reflecting their comments back to the group.

Literature on group counselling indicates several methods of describing development in group processes. The approach used in the present study is patterned on that described by Dreikurs and Sonstegard (1968). It must be emphasized this model was presented to the counselors as a base from which they could select and modify, to facilitate their functioning in group counselling.



## Four Phases

These phases overlap, and since they deal with current ongoing behavior they do not necessarily occur in strict sequence. Many groups reach only one or two of the phases but sinequa non of group counseling is to achieve all four. The relationship phase involves the establishment and maintenance of positive rapport. The exploration phase is concerned with investigation of dynamics leading to the counsellor's understanding of the pupil, his personality (life style) and his concerns. During the interpretive phase the counsellor empathetically indicates to the child what his goals might be and how his behavior relates to them. This is always tentative and the counsellor must be prepared to check his hypotheses and reformulate them when necessary. The final phase is reorientation and re-education in which the counsellor, the student involved, and group members suggest and consider specific means of promoting change and more effective methods of daily interaction.

It should be noted that the postulates of the previous section are rather general and the present writer further postulates that most counsellors will be able to function authentically within this broad spectrum. Further, the counsellor, by his words and actions, shows the pupils he needs their cooperation. This is congruent with Coleman's recommendation that the environment of children be responsive to them so that they will immediately recognize the effects of their actions, and thus increase their feeling of powerfulness.





## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

Pupils' feeling of general powerlessness and the eclectic educational group counselling, described in Appendix A, were the main variables of this study. The central research questions were: (1) To what extent is the pupils' feeling of powerlessness affected by group counselling in a school setting? (2) Can developmental and preventative group counselling be successfully introduced into a school system on an extensive basis?

#### (1) DEFINITION OF TERMS

##### A) Feeling of Powerlessness (Locus of Control)

The feeling of powerlessness refers to the degree to which a person perceives that he does not have control over reinforcements he seeks in his environment. A person with a strong feeling of powerlessness (variously described as externality, externally controlled, external locus of control) is prone to believe that what happens to him in varying situations depends on factors outside himself. These could include more powerful others, luck, chance, fate, or the complexity of the world. Seeman's (1959) definition of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as "the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcements, he seeks (p. 784)," was used in the present study. The individual who tends to believe that what happens to him in varying situations depends upon his own efforts has felt powerfulness



(variously termed internality, internally controlled, internal locus of control). Minton (1968) seems in agreement with this conception when he described powerlessness as "consistent with an environmental locus of causality (p. 48)."

Rotter's I-E scale is an instrument constructed to specifically measure the locus of control as defined by Seeman. The FPPS scale of Patsula (1969) correlated highly with the I-E and was used to assess the general locus of control. The children's IAR scale was designed to measure more specifically school-related locus of control. Thus, the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation was operationally defined by the scales used in this study. These scales are described in a later section of this chapter.

#### B) Eclectic Educational Group Counselling

The in-service program, which was designed to assist the counsellors in carrying out the eclectic educational group counselling of this study, is outlined in chapter two and described in detail in Appendix A.

During the in-service program the co-leaders used the concepts of Adler and Dreikurs as a basic model. The readings and discussions, however, incorporated ideas and techniques from a range of counselling thought, including existentialist, client centered, behaviorist, and gestalt.

The counsellors in the large urban school system, which comprised the target population for this study, have had a wide range of theoretical orientations and it is very probable that this would be the case



in any large city. Since genuineness was deemed an essential or core condition, the eclectic approach allowed counsellors to take and adapt from the in-service program the concepts which were meaningful in their frame of reference, rather than to be constrained to follow a particular theoretical orientation. Indeed Pietrofesa, Leonard, and Van Hoose (1971) made genuineness, or authenticity, the central and overriding theme of their book, The Authentic Counsellor (1971, c.f. p. 33). Further, there is no single generally acceptable counselling theory for working with children in groups (Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1971, p. 190). Rather, it appears that each theory may have something to offer and that there is still much to be learned in this relatively new area of counselling. Komechak (1971) seems to have agreed.

In the here and now of relating with children, one cannot help being struck by the necessity for using an orientation in which the function of relationship can be implemented on the basis of choice of best rationale or best mix of rationale (p. 13).

Finally, Combs' (1969) and Fiedler's (1950) research indicated that the person of the counsellor and his skills are more important than his theoretical orientation. Therefore, the primary goal of the in-service program was to give sufficient structure and resource material, within a broad framework, and in an open atmosphere, so that the counsellors would have theory and technique from which they felt free to select or not to select.

The Adlerian model was the basic approach used but the in-service program was not thus limited. The model employed basic interpersonal processes with much in common with other counselling orientations such as those of Glasser, Perls, Ellis, Wolpe, and Rogers. In fact, the





concepts of Adler are so broad that they are often incorporated into other theories used by the lay public without full realization of the source, or acknowledgement of the incorporation (Ford & Urban, 1965, pp. 304, 305, e.g., inferiority complex). The fundamental theme in the in-service program and the group counselling was the encouragement process. Essential to encouragement is unconditional acceptance of the child as a human being of infinite worth as he is now, not a conditional acceptance based on his modifying his behavior to suit others (Dinkmeyer & Dreikurs, 1963).

The counselling carried out in the present study was educational in that it focused on an educational rather than on a medical model. It was counselling rather than therapy (Gazda, 1969, p. 9; Patterson, 1966). The term therapy, as used here, implies deep or extensive personality change and this was not seen as necessary or desirable for the average pupil in the schools under study. Counselling was an educative or re-educative process, which focused on the present behavior and concerns of the students. The group counselling used would appear to be congruent with that of the model proposed by Christensen (1969, c.f. p. 34).

In summary, the group counselling of this study was a dynamic interpersonal focusing on the present concerns and behaviors of average students. The counsellor was a model for the development of mutual respect and mutual trust, encouragement, orientation to present reality, and an optimistic attitude toward growth and development of interpersonal skills for all members. This growth and development was enhanced by sharing concerns with peers and with the counsellor. Group members were basically normal persons who had concerns and who could



benefit from learning more about the effect of their behavior on others. It was postulated that children are frequently unaware of the powerful effect of their behavior on teachers, parents, and peers and that as they achieved greater awareness they would move toward a greater feeling of control of their personal lives. Further, the potential power of groups was structured by the counsellors to achieve the goal of mutual cooperation of all (pupils, teachers, administrators, and parents) in developing the best possible climate for the pupils' education. This description is similar to, but not entirely congruent with, Gazda, Duncan, and Meadows' definition of group counselling (1967, p. 306).

## (2) POSTULATES

- A) A person's responses to the scales administered in the present study provides an indication of the direction and intensity of his general feeling of powerlessness. Individuals can be ordered on a continuum from felt powerlessness to felt powerfulness.
- B) The responses of a person on the scales are an outgrowth of his history and reflect his current circumstances as he perceives them.

## (3) DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

### A) Design

The pretest-posttest control group design was used (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 13). The essence of the design is given symbolically as follows.



counselled	R	$t_1$	x	$t_2$	$t_3$
control	R	$t_1$		$t_2$	$t_3$
external control	R	$t_1$		$t_2$	$t_3$

R's indicate that the three groups were randomly selected. Thus a total of sixteen groups of six were selected for counselling. Each group of counselled and control subjects were chosen at random from a single grade. The total counselled and control were approximately 100 each. The external control group of 36 was also chosen randomly.  $T_1$  represents the pretest, given before treatment,  $t_2$  represents the first posttest, given at the close of treatment, and  $t_3$  represents the second posttest, given five months after treatment.

The treatment, group counselling, is indicated by x. The counselling consisted of ten 30-minute sessions twice weekly. This design controls for seven major sources of internal invalidity: history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, regression, selection, and mortality. It is one of three designs Campbell and Stanley (1963) considered a true experimental design because it controls for internal invalidity and thus satisfies the requirement of yielding interpretable comparisons, which are the basic minimum, before statistical tests of significance may be applied to see if obtained differences are greater than fluctuations to be expected in cases of no true differences for a given sample size.

The second posttest ( $t_3$ ) was administered to measure possible long term effects of counselling. Long-range effects have been found greater than immediate effects for general attitudes, although weaker for specific attitudes (Hovland, Lumsdaine, & Sheffield, 1949). A further reason for the second posttest was to assess the stability of the effects





of counselling. Campbell and Stanley (1963, p. 31) and Cohn (1967, p. 33) recommended this procedure.

Two schools were selected to form a placebo group to control for the Hawthorne Effect. These were schools eight and nine, and were selected by central office administration on the basis of general socioeconomic level of parents and academic achievement of pupils, which most closely approximated schools four and six. The latter schools participated in the group counselling.

To assess possible interaction between counselled and non-counselled pupils in the original six schools, school seven was selected as an external control. This school was selected by central office administration by the same procedure as schools eight and nine were selected.

Subjects were categorized as high, medium, or low on felt powerlessness on the pretest scores. It is plausible that group counselling may affect individuals with varying degrees of felt powerlessness differentially and thus high, medium, and low groups were analysed separately. A more complete discussion of the analysis of the groups separately is given in the latter section of this chapter under Specific Rationale for Hypotheses.

## B) Statistical Treatment

The basic statistical procedure used in the present study was analysis of covariance. This is described as one of the most desirable and effective methods of analysis for data generated by this research design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 23; Lord, 1963).



Analysis of covariance takes into account and adjusts for initial differences in groups; an analysis of variance is then applied to the corrected means to determine, by statistical tests of significance, whether the differences are greater than those expected by chance variation (Kerlinger, 1964, p. 349).

### C) Hypotheses

1. At  $t_2$ , the counselled group will have a lower degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation than the control group as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

1.1 At  $t_2$ , the counselled group showing a high degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $t_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

1.2 At  $t_2$ , the counselled group showing a moderate (middle) degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $t_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

1.3 At  $t_2$ , the counselled group showing a low degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $t_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

2. At  $t_3$ , the counselled group will have a lower degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation than the control group as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.



2.1 At  $t_3$ , the counselled group showing a high degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $t_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

2.2 At  $t_3$ , the counselled group showing a moderate (middle) degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $t_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

2.3 At  $t_3$ , the counselled group showing a low degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $t_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

#### D) Specific Rationale for Hypotheses

General rationale for the hypotheses was given in Chapter II. An increase in felt powerfulness or internal control appears as a valid goal for education generally (Coleman, et al., 1966), and for educational counselling specifically (Lefcourt, 1966, p. 191; Minton, 1968, p. 52; Patsula, 1969, pp. 1 & 7).

It is noted that the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation is developed over a person's lifetime and the treatment time of ten half hour sessions is relatively brief. Some change in locus of control as a result of treatment, when working with groups of children, however, appears to be a tenable hypothesis. Indeed, Warner and Hansen (1970 c.f., p. 29) successfully employed group counselling with





highly alienated high-school students with only six forty-minute group counselling sessions. Warner and Hansen were concerned with alienation in general but the felt powerlessness dimension was one dimension assessed in their study.

Pupils with moderate and low degrees of felt powerlessness were included in the present study for several reasons. This was a developmental study using educational counselling and was based on the premise that all could benefit (Chapter I). Random selection of pupils meant that any pupil could become a group member, thus removing the stigma of being attached to groups of students with disciplinary problems, truancy, of slow learning, and the like. This made the counselling potentially more acceptable to pupils, parents, and educators. Today, school board members and the public are heard to complain that counselling is only for a very limited number of students, such as truants, who often drop out of school, even when counselling is given to them. Cohn (1967) advocated group counselling for all, especially at specific periods such as the transition from elementary school to junior-high school. Finally, some of these pupils who are internals can be a potentially valuable source of peer model reinforcement for the externals (Warner & Hansen, 1970).

Including all pupils, however, raised some potential difficulties in theory, prediction, and analysis. Some individuals at the extremes of the locus-of-control continuum may be unrealistic (Rotter, 1966, p. 4). Among those who score very low in powerlessness are likely to be persons who feel a need to act or convince themselves that they are in control when they actually feel quite powerless. It is plausible that group counselling would result in some of these individuals being



able to more honestly and openly confront their feelings of powerlessness and thus their scores on the posttests may move toward the powerlessness end of the continuum.

The orientation of counsellors and the helping profession generally seems to be that individuals can learn to exert a greater degree of control over their environment, and it is quite plausible that this attitude would be communicated nonverbally and possibly verbally to the counselled students. It can be argued theoretically that, in areas of ego involvement, if the communication of an individual is too divergent from that of the recipient, the recipient may entrench his existing attitude more firmly, or may even change his attitude in a direction away from the communicators. This latter phenomenon, the "boomerang" effect, has been observed by Hovland, Harvey, and Sherif (1957, p. 245). It should be noted that Hovland's work concerned social issues and was concerned with adult populations. Hovland's overall results indicated that the most frequent results for subjects whose own stand diverges widely from that advocated in communication is to remain unchanged in their initial attitudes (1957, p. 251). Considering all these factors, it is thus possible that the middle group could show the greatest attitude change.

Those who are most external would seem to be in greatest need of having externality reduced. Since this group is the most external they might be affected most by the counselling.

High, middle, and low externals were analyzed separately as it was important to consider degrees of the variables under consideration (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 3). Stratifying the data in this manner presents the results of the study more clearly and explores possible



interactions among the experimental variables.

Minority groups who appear to have the greatest amount of powerlessness in the North American environment could be expected to show the greatest amount of felt powerlessness. Battle and Rotter (1963), Coleman, et al. (1966), and Graves (1961), all observed this to be the case. Coleman et al. stressed the importance of attempting to reduce this feeling in minorities.

It may well be, then, that one of the keys toward success for minorities which have experienced disadvantage and a particularly unresponsive environment--either in the home or the large society--is a change in this conception (p. 321).

Indian students have had great difficulty in achieving their share of academic success in Canadian education as is evidenced by the high drop-out rate and the small numbers who enter post-high-school education. Consequently, the scores of these children were analyzed separately to assess counselling effectiveness with them.

#### (4) GENERAL PROCEDURES

Permission was obtained from the superintendent and the director of research to conduct this study in a large, 30,000 pupil, urban, state-supported system. An aim of the study was to approximate the "natural" conditions which exist in schools. Care was taken to disrupt the routine of the school as little as possible. Cooperation of pupils, parents, and educators was actively sought by letters to parents and personal explanations to pupils and educators regarding the general aims and procedures.





## A) Selection of Counsellors

Six counsellors were selected from the staff of a large urban Catholic school system. This system receives full provincial and municipal financial support on the same basis as the public school systems and consequently has fully equivalent facilities. The counsellors were resident counsellors and counselled in their home schools. Campbell and Stanley (1963) support the idea of counsellors working in their home schools.

...and as a result of personal observations of experimenters who have published data in spite of having such poor rapport that their findings were quite misleading, the present authors are gradually coming to the view that experimentation within schools must be conducted by regular staff of the schools concerned, whenever possible, especially when findings are to be generalized to other classroom situations (p. 21).

Counsellors in the school system under study were assigned to individual schools when the school achieved a sufficient enrollment.

## B) Selection of Pupils

Since the counselling was developmental and preventative, subjects were selected from the earliest grades feasible. The readability and abstraction level of the scales were prime factors in choosing grade four as the lower limit. Grade nine, the last grade in junior high, was the upper limit.

Subjects were randomly selected by grade within each school. Equal numbers of males and females were chosen. From a single grade a counselled group of six (Combs, 1963; Driver, 1954), and a no-treatment control group of six were selected. Four schools had three coun-



selling and three control groups each. Counsellor work loads resulted in the two remaining schools having only two counselled and two control groups each. Ninety-six pupils were thus selected to receive counselling. A group of thirty-six subjects was randomly selected from a seventh school to form the external control group. This school, number seven, was matched on socioeconomic level, community attitudes, size, and school atmosphere by central office personnel, with school one of the six participating schools. The pupils from school seven were an external control to assess possible interaction between counselled and non-counselled pupils from the original six schools.

Two schools, eight and nine, matched with schools four and six, and, chosen on the same criteria as school seven, were selected as placebo control groups. These groups received communications education from classroom teachers who had no experience as counsellors. In this program, material, judged by teachers and curriculum specialists to be potentially highly motivating, and which had not been previously used in the schools, was employed to further develop oral reading, listening, and discussion skills. All pupils in schools seven, eight, and nine were selected randomly.

### C) Counselling Sessions

Ten sessions of thirty minutes, twice a week, was the total counselling time. Placebo groups had the same time allotment and time distribution. Support for similar time allotments was given by Combs (1963), MacDougall (1969), and Winkler (1965). When pupils and counsellor mutually agreed, teachers were invited to participate (MacDougall,



1969, p. 58).

A basic aim of the counselling of the present study was to decrease felt powerlessness through improving communications and cooperation between pupils and teachers. The present writer's experience and the experience of others (e.g. MacDougall, 1969) have shown that this can be a beneficial practice. Mowrer (1966) appeared to support this position when he indicated that significant others must be involved to produce positive change in self-evaluative statements of belief. It is noted, however, that this adds another source of variance which is difficult to control because different groups were ready to invite teachers at varying times in their development. The anticipated likelihood of improved communication and cooperation between pupils and teachers, however, was judged to outweigh the control problem.

#### D) In-service Seminars

The in-service seminars (described theoretically in Chapter II and practically in Appendix A) consisted of eight two-hour sessions that were led by the supervisor of counselling of the Edmonton Catholic School District and the present writer. Sessions 1 and 2 were orientation sessions, and 3 through 7 dealt with specific interpersonal interaction sequences involving students or students and the counsellor, and any other concerns the counsellors encountered. Session 8 was centered on approaches for future development.

#### (5) SCALES USED

Instruments used to assess the effects of counselling were the





Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR), and adapted (for lower reading levels) versions of Rotter's Scale of Internality-Externality (I-E), and Patsula's Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (FPPS).

#### A) Internality-Externality Scale (I-E)

The I-E scale has twenty-nine forced choice items which include six filler items. These items refer to general attitudes which extend across many situations. The I-E includes 35 through 63 of the Opinion Survey and is Appendix B of the present study.

At one point in its development, this scale contained 60 items and several subscales. Item analysis indicated that the subscales were not generating separate predictions, so the attempt to measure more specific sub-areas of internal-external control was abandoned. The scale was refined to its present form by eliminating items which correlated highly with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, which had a nonsignificant relationship with other items, or which had a correlation approaching zero with both validation criteria. The validation criteria were developed in Seeman and Evans' (1962) study of hospital patients who had evidenced greater self-effort towards recovery versus those who were more passive, and Rotter, Liverant, and Crowne's (1961) study of the prediction of individual differences in trials to extinction.

Rotter (1966, p. 4) reported low correlations with intelligence (.01, .03, -.09, -.11, -.22) which was an indication of discriminant validity. Rotter predicted a low linear relationship between I-E



scores and adjustment in a normal population.

Two factor analyses of the I-E were reported by Rotter (1966). Both indicated that a considerable percentage (53% in Franklin's 1963 study) of the variance was included in a general factor with additional factors involving only a few items and accounting for a small proportion of the variance.

Concurrent validity was indicated by satisfactory correlations with other methods of assessing the same variable such as questionnaires, Likert scales, interview assessments, and ratings from a story-completion technique (Rotter, 1966, p. 25).

Support for construct validity is indicated by several studies, cited in Chapter II, which show support for the hypothesis that a person who believes he has control of his own destiny is likely to

- a) be more alert to those aspects of the environment which provide useful information for his future behavior; b) take steps to improve his environmental condition; c) place greater value on skill or achievement with his ability, particularly his failures; and to be resistive to subtle attempts to influence him (Rotter, 1966, p. 25).

Rotter (1966) reported relatively stable internal consistency estimates which are moderately high for a scale in which the items are not arranged in a difficulty hierarchy but are samples of attitudes in a wide variety of situations (corrected split half reliability coefficient .79; Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficients from .69 to .76).

Test-retest reliabilities varied from .49 through .83 with the majority .60 and higher. Patsula (1969), reported a test-retest reliability of .47 (Pearson Product-Moment, one month lapse, N=79) and an internal consistency coefficient of .64 (KR<sub>20</sub>, N=220).



The original I-E and FPPS were revised and administered according to the following procedure.

Three elementary reading specialists and three psychologists, in cooperation with selected grade-four teachers, helped to adapt the scales so that they would be compatible with the vocabulary and comprehension levels of the grade-four students participating in the study.

A grade-four teacher selected six pupils, two from each of the lower, middle, and upper thirds of the class in reading level. This procedure was carried out in two classes. These pupils completed the I-E scale. Each child was then asked to explain either even or odd numbered items of the scales in their own words.

A speech pathologist and audiologist, who worked with elementary-school-age children, orally read each item of the scales while the children read them silently. The scales were not administered to groups of more than forty and one counsellor or one psychologist for every ten pupils was available to answer any questions individual pupils might have had, but might have been reluctant to raise before the whole group.

Seventy-eight grade-eight pupils were given the original I-E and the adapted I-E at a single sitting. The correlation between the two forms was .76.

#### B) Feeling of Personal Powerlessness Scale (FPPS)

Patsula (1968) developed the FPPS from a factor analysis of items from Dean's Alienation Scale, Strle's Anomie Scale, and McClosky-Schaar's Anomy Scale. The items chosen were those with factor loadings greater than .3 in absolute value on the first factor in the orthogonal rota-





tion of the responses to the items on the aforementioned scales. The items reflected the orientation that life is complex and the individual is like a cog in a machine. An examination of the scale indicated that it assessed generalized rather than specific attitudes.

The FPPS items are 64 through 93 of the opinion survey (Appendix B).

Patsula (1968) found that tenth-grade males had significantly higher scores on this scale than females and that there was a significant ( $p < .036$ ) negative correlation with socioeconomic status. He also found, post factum, a significant negative relation with both literature and language achievement.

Patsula (1969) found test-retest reliability of .57 ( $N=79$ , one month between tests, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation) and an internal consistency of .739 (Kuder-Richardson 20 with  $N=220$ ).

The same procedures used in developing the adapted I-E were employed with the FPPS. A correlation of .81 between the original and adapted FPPS was obtained.

### C) Children's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale (IAR)

The IAR consists of 34 forced-choice items, numbered one through 34 in the opinion survey. Seventeen items describe positive achievement experiences and yield an IAR+ score. Seventeen items describe negative achievement experiences and yield an IAR- score. Each item has two alternatives, one attributing the cause of the achievement experience to the child's own behavior, while the other attributes the cause to an external source. This scale, which refers to specific intellectual achievement situations, is more situation specific than



the I-E or FPPS scales.

Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall (1965) found significant positive correlations (in the twenties and thirties) between internality as measured by the IAR and report card grades ( $N=923$ ,  $p<.01$ , 2-tailed, third through twelfth grade). McGhee and Crandall (1968) found a trend for high internal boys and girls to have higher teacher-assigned grades in academic subjects. Crandall, Katkovsky, and Preston (1962) found, among boys only, that high internals spent more time in free play activities of an intellectual nature and exhibited more intense striving in the activities than did externals. They also found that internality and reading-achievement test scores were positively related for boys.

Test-retest reliabilities were reported by Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall (1965), varying from .47 to .74 ( $p<.001$ ) and internal consistency measures (from .54 to .60) for the separate scales. They also reported that self-responsibility for success and failure seemed to be more generalized at the eighth grade level than at the lower grade levels but that it was definitely observable by the third grade.

## (6) SUMMARY

The first part of the chapter consisted of a description of felt powerlessness, and eclectic educational group counselling.

Experimental design and hypotheses were outlined in the second section.

General procedures, including the selection of counsellors and pupils, and the in-service seminars were then presented.



Finally, a description of the instruments was given. In this section the Internality-Externality, Feeling of Personal Powerlessness, and Children's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scales were described.

The following chapter will report the findings of the experiment.





## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The scores of the counselled, control, and external group on the I-E, IAR, and FPPS at  $t_1$ ,  $t_2$ , and  $t_3$  were subjected to an analysis of covariance. The computer program used was ANCOV 10, developed by Bay (1969), for the IBM 360/67. This program is applicable for a randomized design using single covariate control and allows for unequal  $N$ s.

#### STATISTICAL TESTS OF THE HYPOTHESES

The results obtained by the analysis of covariance are given in tables 1 and 2 and are presented following the hypotheses.

1. At  $t_2$ , the counselled group will have a lower degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation than the control group as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

1.1. At  $t_2$ , the counselled group showing a high degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $t_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

1.2. At  $t_2$ , the counselled group showing a moderate (middle) degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $t_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

1.3. At  $t_2$ , the counselled group showing a low degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the: a) I-E,



b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $\underline{t}_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

2. At  $\underline{t}_3$ , the counselled group will have a lower degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation than the control group as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

2.1. At  $\underline{t}_3$ , the counselled group showing a high degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $\underline{t}_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

2.2. At  $\underline{t}_3$ , the counselled group showing a moderate (middle) degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $\underline{t}_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.

2.3. At  $\underline{t}_3$ , the counselled group showing a low degree of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales at  $\underline{t}_1$ , will show less felt powerlessness than the control group as measured by the: a) I-E, b) IAR, c) FPPS scales.



TABLE 1  
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE AT T<sub>1</sub> & T<sub>2</sub>

Hypoth.	Criterion	Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means	Source of Variation	df	MS	Adjusted F	Significance
1 a	I-E	Couns.	90	8.89	8.70					
		Control	126	9.08	9.03	Between	2	3.07	0.30	N S
		Ext.Cont.	36	8.14	8.79	Within	248	10.33		
1 b	IAR	Couns.	90	8.31	8.38					
		Control	126	8.11	8.07	Between	2	2.69	0.24	N S
		Ext.Cont.	36	8.30	8.30	Within	248	11.03		
1 c	FPPS	Couns.	90	67.27	66.40					
		Control	126	65.78	65.15	Between	2	45.96	0.59	N S
		Ext.Cont.	36	60.69	65.06	Within	248	78.63		
1.1 a	I-E	Couns.	14	10.93	10.93	Between	1	10.74	1.18	N S
		Control	16	12.13	12.13	Within	27	9.13		
1.1 b	IAR	Couns.	16	13.94	13.93	Between	1	11.13	1.27	N S
		Control	21	12.81	12.82	Within	34	8.80		
1.1 c	FPPS	Couns.	14	77.57	78.41	Between	1	139.24	2.38	N S
		Control	17	74.59	73.89	Within	28	58.39		
1.2 a	I-E	Couns.	30	9.50	9.48	Between	1	5.99	0.64	N S
		Control	40	8.88	8.89	Within	67	9.37		
1.2 b	IAR	Couns.	26	6.77	6.69	Between	1	31.54	2.78	N S
		Control	54	8.00	8.04	Within	77	11.35		
1.2 c	FPPS	Couns.	26	67.73	68.06	Between	1	23.74	0.31	N S
		Control	39	69.51	69.30	Within	62	76.65		
1.3 a	I-E	Couns.	12	5.67	5.75	Between	1	1.33	0.11	N S
		Control	26	5.38	5.35	Within	35	11.70		
1.3 b	IAR	Couns.	11	4.36	4.33	Between	1	1.86	0.23	N S
		Control	14	4.86	4.86	Within	22	8.06		
1.3 c	FPPS	Couns.	13	54.92	53.60	Between	1	3.51	0.05	N S
		Control	19	53.37	54.28	Within	29	74.38		





TABLE 2  
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE T<sub>1</sub> & T<sub>3</sub>

Hypoth.	Criterion	Group	N	Means	Adjusted Means	Source of Variation	df	MS	Adjusted F	Significance
2 a	I-E	Couns.	90	8.96	8.77					
		Control	126	8.87	8.82	Between	2	7.47	0.61	N S
		Ext.Cont.	36	7.47	8.10	Within	248	12.30		
2 b	IAR	Couns.	90	8.22	8.28					
		Control	126	8.18	8.14	Between	2	10.81	0.62	N S
		Ext.Cont.	36	7.39	7.38	Within	248	17.52		
2 c	FPPS	Couns.	90	65.69	64.99					
		Control	126	65.24	64.74	Between	2	164.09	1.38	N S
		Ext.Cont.	36	58.00	61.51	Within	248	118.93		
2.1 a	I-E	Couns.	14	11.50	11.50	Between	1	2.93	0.33	N S
		Control	16	10.88	10.87	Within	27	8.93		
2.1 b	IAR	Couns.	16	12.88	12.87	Between	1	1.67	0.08	N S
		Control	21	13.29	13.29	Within	34	20.00		
2.1 c	FPPS	Couns.	14	72.07	72.13	Between	1	34.30	0.13	N S
		Control	17	69.94	69.89	Within	28	256.47		
2.2 a	I-E	Couns.	30	9.83	9.82	Between	1	4.00	0.32	N S
		Control	40	9.33	9.34	Within	67	12.33		
2.2 b	IAR	Couns.	26	7.35	7.35	Between	1	5.13	0.28	N S
		Control	54	7.89	7.89	Within	77	18.35		
2.2 c	FPPS	Couns.	26	67.92	68.32	Between	1	2.99	0.04	N S
		Control	39	69.03	68.76	Within	62	81.99		
2.3 a	I-E	Couns.	12	5.83	5.93	Between	1	1.27	0.07	N S
		Control	26	5.58	5.53	Within	35	17.31		
2.3 b	IAR	Couns.	11	5.82	5.88	Between	1	14.68	2.09	N S
		Control	14	4.36	4.31	Within	22	7.01		
2.3 c	FPPS	Couns.	13	57.54	56.49	Between	1	28.15	0.22	N S
		Control	19	53.84	54.56	Within	29	131.16		



The Indian population results are not reported because the high mobility of members of this group resulted in an N of three at the final testing.

There did not appear to be a consistent or interpretable pattern of results. The counselling treatment failed to reduce significantly the level of felt powerlessness. This lack of significance was apparent in all the criteria measures used in this research. Stratifying the subjects according to their felt powerlessness on the pretest into high, medium, and low groups did not change the overall pattern of results.

The absence of significant support for the hypotheses may be interpreted in a number of ways. It is possible the treatment had no substantial effect.

The writer's subjective experience during the in-service and group counselling indicated that there may well have been significant positive results accruing to the treatment groups, results that were not measured by the instruments used in the study. The comments of pupils, parents, teachers, administrators, and counsellors indicated an acceptance of the group counselling. These comments were accompanied by behaviors which appeared to be congruent with the comments. No parent complaints were received in any of the schools involved. Several parents asked if their children could enter the groups and other parents asked if the groups could continue longer. Pupils' attendance at the counselling sessions was 98 percent compared to an attendance of 90 percent for the overall student body of the six schools. One year after this study all the counsellors were carrying on group counselling with the approval of administrators and teachers. It is suggested that an analysis made of changes in behaviors in the



counselling sessions as recorded on video tape could prove to be a more sensitive measuring device.

A questionnaire, Feedback (Appendix C), was administered to the counselled and placebo groups approximately one week after the termination of group counselling. Eighty-eight of a total of 90 in the counselled groups and 14 of a total of 14 in the placebo groups responded.

Lambert (1968), writing in the Review of Educational Research, appears to support the idea of asking pupils' reactions to the educational programs they are involved in, "...other observers, including the child himself, need to be involved in a multiple-dimension assessment of the child's adaptional progress in the school setting (p. 494)."

It must be noted that the results from Feedback are subjective indicators which may assist in understanding the group counselling further, but do not provide experimental evidence.

Questions 7 through 10 dealt specifically with the amount of control (felt powerfulness) pupils felt they had. A chi square analysis of questions 7 through 10 (Appendix C), with Yates' correction for continuity applied, resulted in significant differences on questions 7 and 10. These differences indicated the counselled students felt they had gained more control in relating positively to their peers and to their parents, than the placebo group had. Question 9 related to control over positive relationships with teachers, and question 8 referred to increased control over test marks. There were no significant differences between the counselled and placebo groups on these latter questions.





The counselling sessions were oriented to learning how to understand the effects of pupils' words and actions on others. Group members were able to observe the effects that changes in their behavior had on other members in the group. Getting along with parents and siblings was discussed in counselling groups. In contrast, the placebo groups concentrated on communications skills in academic areas and did not focus on the affective areas. The responses to questions 7 and 10 appeared to indicate that different kinds of learning were taking place in the counselling and placebo groups and that a substantial number of the counselled pupils felt an increase in the degree of control in relating to peers and parents.

Responses to questions 7 through 10 may indicate the effects of the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation is not uniform across varying situations involving peers and adults.

#### SUMMARY

There was no statistical evidence to indicate that the group counselling was effective in reducing felt powerlessness, as measured by the scales used in this study. There was no observable evidence to suggest that the group counselling adversely affected the participants. The comments and actions of all involved with the counselling indicated that group counselling had been successfully established in the school system.



## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS

#### SUMMARY

Using a pretest-posttest design, the effect of group counselling on the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation in students from grades four through nine was assessed.

The criterion-measurement instrument used was a 93-item questionnaire consisting of three subscales, the IAR, I-E, and FPPS, and was administered to children randomly selected from six representative schools. The pupils were randomly assigned to counselling and to no-treatment control groups. Thirty-six pupils from a comparable control school formed a group to check against possible interaction between the counselled and control groups. A placebo group was formed from two other comparable schools in this large urban state supported school system. Analysis of covariance was used to assess the magnitude of score change on this 93-item questionnaire.

The second major purpose of the project was the introduction of group counselling in a large urban school system.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Analysis of scores on the criterion did not indicate a significant reduction of felt powerlessness in the counselled students. It is therefore concluded counselling did not reduce felt powerlessness, as it was measured in this study.

A second conclusion must be that this was a highly successful



method of introducing a program of group counselling into a large school system. Further, a follow-up one year after the conclusion of the study has shown the group counselling program was functioning effectively and has the support of school personnel.

## IMPLICATIONS

### General

Group counselling in schools has expanded in recent years. Research into the effectiveness of group counselling, although increasing rapidly (Anderson, 1969), has shown positive effects of counselling in some studies and lack of positive effects in others. Reasons for unequivocal research findings to date are complex and varied. The present writer suggests that the many variables involved in group processes could be an important factor contributing to the mixed research findings.

A number of specific implications will be discussed below.

### Specific

A potentially powerful refinement of the present research would be an attempt to differentiate between pupils who actually are relatively powerless in areas essential to success in school and those who are not but feel they are. Others have noted that the individual's perception of powerlessness is often inconsistent with reality (Minton, 1968; Patsula, 1969). It is plausible that counselling could be differentially effective with these two groups of students.





Felt powerlessness may not be a unitary concept in that it may be reduced differentially across varying situations and interpersonal interactions (e.g. test marks, answering orally in class, interacting with peers, with parents, with teachers). Hence future researchers could consider assessing attempts to reduce felt powerlessness in specifically defined situations and with specifically defined persons. Serious consideration could be given to defining and assessing specific behavioral correlates of felt powerlessness (e.g. pupil initiated interactions with teachers, pupil initiated attempts to assist other pupils, specific pupil statements which indicate an internal locus of control).

As noted in Chapter III, the possibilities of the boomerang effect occurring when the communicator's attitude is very different from that of the communicatee should be studied further. Therefore, consideration could be given to assessing counsellors' attitudes, before and after an experiment. The difficulty of developing a valid instrument with sufficient ambiguity and with social desirability control is noted.

The present study could have gained greater statistical precision had the writer taken pupils of equivalent degrees of felt powerlessness and randomly assigned one member of each pair to the control group and one to the experimental group.

Pupils may benefit from group counselling in many ways. It is suggested that future researchers be alert to and consider both process variables (frequency and duration of positive social interaction, and reduction of fighting or negative interaction) and product variables (GPAs, sociometric choices, attendance). It is noted that the resources of a single investigator may limit the variables studied. One plausible



approach to deal with the complexities involved in research on group counselling was suggested by Anderson (1969).

Institutional or collaborative research that is based on these theoretical models and within which small coordinated studies can be conducted appears to hold the most promise for the future (p. 223).

In summary the present research demonstrated that the group counselling did not reduce the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the I-E, IAR, and FPPS scales. The results of this study demonstrated a method of successfully introducing group counselling in an urban school system.



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## APPENDICES



## APPENDIX A

### THE IN-SERVICE PROGRAM





APPENDIX A

## THE IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

## FACTORS LEADING TO THE IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

The completion of the present study required considerable use of school personnel and facilities. To justify the study in the school system, aims of the study had to have considerable congruence with those of the schools. The school system involved was currently considering a systematic expansion of previously ad hoc and limited localized group counselling. The increase in group processes in business, industry, hospital, marital, and educational settings, difficulty in obtaining "adequate" pupil-counsellor ratios, concern over increasing alienation of students, and expressed interest of pupils, teachers, and counsellors in furthering their development in group processes were factors influencing the increase of interest in group counselling in the school system. Secondly, the system was preparing an evaluation of counselling services and thus the idea of an in-service program, devoted group counselling, followed by group counselling and an assessment of the effectiveness of this procedure provided a basis for a symbiotic relationship between the school system and the researcher. During the evolution of the research the present writer and school personnel made certain concessions or accommodations. For example, for research purposes it would have been interesting to assess individual counsellor effectiveness, but this was not deemed in the best interest of the counselling department of the school system. On the other side of the coin, counsellors and individual schools relinquished some of their flexibility



to facilitate replicability and generalizeability of the study, (they agreed to standardized interview length and frequency, where flexibility from school to school would have been desirable).

#### GOALS OF IN-SERVICE

The overall goals of the in-service were to introduce a group counselling model in the schools and to assist in making the group counselling program more effective. There are many criteria for effectiveness of group and/or individual counselling. The present study limited the measure of effectiveness to that of reducing the felt powerlessness dimension of alienation as measured by the IAR, I-E, and FPPS scales.

The plan of the in-service was to give sufficient structure to facilitate an orderly study of areas the leaders' experience and a review of the literature indicated were essential to counselling. Within this broad framework sufficient flexibility was allowed in terms of content and method of presentation to insure that the counsellors would see that the reinforcements they sought within the in-service program were contingent upon their behavior (whether it was asking questions, contributing suggestions for modifications, or analyzing tapes) and hopefully reducing or keeping their own felt powerlessness dimension of alienation at its present level. (An interesting bit of hindsight would have involved measuring the counsellors' felt powerlessness before and after the in-service program.

It is essential to note that the encouragement process was modeled in the in-service by the co-leaders. This was postulated as an



effective method of "teaching" the counsellors the encouragement process.

As necessary prerequisites for effective human interaction in general and counselling in particular several prerequisites were postulated. A goal of the in-service was further development of these prerequisites in counsellors and pupils.

A. Social interest is a basic attitude toward life which is characterized by interest in and cooperation with one's fellow humans. This is a true interest in the commonweal as opposed to an interest in achieving self elevation at the expense of others. Adler held that social interest was a basic potential in humans and failure to develop it adequately was a factor in all human maladjustment (Ansbacher, 1956).

B. Courage is the acceptance of the realities of the present situation, whatever they may be, and the willingness to start from this point and improve the situation to whatever degree one can. This can be contrasted to the reaction of those who lack courage insofar as they use failure, present difficulty, or other adversity as a defeat and an excuse to stop trying to improve the situation. The instilling of courage, by the encouragement process, is seen as essential in any human relationship where the goal is to improve the functioning of others, be it counsellors, teachers, parents, or students.

The encouragement process is a fundamental and central theme of this study. The process, broken into seven steps for purposes of analysis, is an adaptation from Hillman (1967).

1. Value the child and show faith and acceptance of him as he is now, not a conditional acceptance based on his changing





to satisfy us (similar to Rogers' unconditional positive regard).

2. Develop the child's self-confidence by having confidence in him.
3. Recognize efforts as well as success.
4. Use the integrative forces in the group to enhance each child's sense of belonging.
5. Maximize potential for success by setting short range goals and individualizing reinforcements to each child's level.
6. Focus on the child's strengths and assets.
7. Find and use the interests of each child.

C. Optimism is closely related to courage and there is some overlap in the two terms. The optimistic person focuses on the positive aspects of his environment and on those in which there is reasonable hope for improvement rather than concentrating on negative aspects and those which are essentially a fait accompli. The optimist has faith in the individual and in mankind; he believes man can develop and learn to live more cooperatively with his fellow human beings. The optimist would possess a high degree of Fromm's biophily (life or vital principle) and relatively little necrophily (death principle).

D. Research on anxiety has indicated an optimal level of anxiety for effective learning (Hebb, 1955). Too much anxiety is debilitating, whereas too little reduces motivation to the point where the individual does not try hard. Research in counselling and psychotherapy and the co-leaders' experience indicated few, if any, counsellors who did not have sufficient anxiety to motivate them to help their clients. Therefore the in-service was committed to holding anxiety at present levels





or reducing it.

E. Flexibility is necessary in human interaction. To promote authenticity and mutual encouragement the co-leaders and counsellors had to be flexible. Psychoanalytic theory holds that a neurotic's behavior is characterized by inflexible use of the defense mechanisms. It was postulated that advocating and insisting that the counsellors adopt a particular theoretical orientation would result in considerable incongruence and dissonance and would thus seriously reduce their flexibility. The co-leaders postulated that by being flexible in the in-service a model was thus developed for the counsellors to emulate.

F. The in-service aimed to facilitate confidence in the counsellors by providing personal experience and literature which added to their knowledge of the counselling process. The stress on cooperation rather than competition and the co-leaders frank admission of mistakes and viewing mistakes as opportunities for learning and improving the future rather than reasons for discouragement and giving up, were designed to give the counsellors more confidence.

G. It was postulated that all counsellors involved in the present study, including the co-leaders, could and would benefit from sharing each others' past and present experiences as counsellors.

#### ATMOSPHERE

It was felt that goals one through seven would be best achieved by the creation of an optimum learning atmosphere for personal growth. The factors involved are discussed subsequently. It should be noted these factors are not entirely discrete nor completely exhaustive, but



were considered by the co-leaders to be essential components.

1. Reduced threat--to reduce personal threat it was agreed that individual counsellors or schools would not be evaluated or measured separately.

2. Cooperation--obviously many problems of group and individual counselling are yet to be solved. The literature is not replete with accounts of totally or even partially successful counselling (Gazda & Larsen, 1968). It seemed essential, therefore, that cooperation rather than competition was the preferred mode for counsellor functioning. Six counsellors pooling efforts was potentially superior to that of a single counsellor, each following an isolated independent path. It was suggested that the pooling of efforts is accomplished more effectively in a cooperative atmosphere.

3. Openness--this is essential to full communication. To promote openness the counsellors were fully informed of the complete procedures involved.

4. Collegiality--we are all professional counsellors even though we may differ in experience, education, interest, and ability.

5. Mutual reinforcement and support--this was needed because: counsellors do become discouraged at times when counselling; group counselling can be more challenging or threatening to a counsellor than individual counselling; and, group counselling was essentially a new experience for most of the counsellors.

6. Commonality--during the in-service the counsellors saw that many areas of difficulty such as opening an interview, encouraging the nonverbal or reticent child or the attention getter, helping the group keep on track, closing an interview, and introducing teachers to the



sessions, were common to all counsellors in varying degrees.

7. Theoretical orientation--this area posed a dilemma for the researcher. A single counselling orientation such as client-centered, behaviorist, Adlerian, or existentialist would have facilitated replication studies more readily than an eclectic approach. However, the counsellors in the study represented a broad spectrum of theoretical orientations and it was felt that for the counsellors to be genuine, which is almost universally acknowledged as a core condition of counselling (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967), they should be free to retain their original orientations and modify them to whatever extent they chose to during the in-service program. Also, in comparable urban school systems one would expect to find a wide range of theoretical orientations among the counsellors. Further, the co-leaders' experience indicated considerable difficulty in achieving a single orientation in practice. It should be noted that the concepts of Dreikurs formed a considerable portion of the basic framework. To facilitate replicability or other study the writer provides a detailed description of the in-service program in this Appendix.

8. Voluntary--all counsellors in this study were volunteers - the element of coercion was thus reduced or eliminated. This factor was intended to enhance the flexibility factor referred to previously (c.f. p. 80).

#### OVERVIEW OF THE IN-SERVICE

The purpose of the first two seminar sessions was to establish the rationale for group counselling and to develop an orientation with





the counsellors toward the concept of working with small intimate groups of pupils. The third through seventh sessions involved sharing of experiences in groups, of the counsellors, who were working with the groups. The readings were discussed, problems arising out of the group sessions were discussed, tape recordings of actual sessions were played and analyzed, and relevant aspects of the group work were shared. The effect of group counselling on the students within the group, on students not in the group, on teachers, administrators, and on parents was discussed. The eighth session was devoted to answering two questions: what have we done that was worthwhile or effective? and, what should be modified or done differently in the future?

#### Session One

The rationale for group counselling is developed in chapters one and two of this dissertation and this rationale was presented to the counsellors along with certain hand-outs listed in the bibliography at the conclusion of this appendix. It was suggested to the counsellors that in subsequent meetings the group could study the readings by discussing concepts with which they could strongly agree, things which they had difficulty accepting, and things that they would like explained further.

The initial session of counselling with the students was discussed, and basically the first few minutes each counsellor would have with their groups was dwelt upon. The opening of the first counselling session usually presents a problem to a counsellor so this was dealt with at some length.



Regardless of how well prospective group members have been oriented to group counselling, the initial session of a group is likely to produce a degree of anxiety in the counsellor and the group members (Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1971, p. 173).

The initial counselling session consists of identifying the interests of the group, in terms of:

- a) what really turns them on at school?
- b) what bugs them about school?
- c) what are some of the concerns that the students have about other kids, friends, peers, etc.?
- d) what are some of the difficulties in relating to other members of the family? Who stands up for you? Which brother or sister bugs you the most?

Also, the counsellors may suggest that pupils write out topics they would like to discuss and these can be used in future counselling sessions.

Within these questions one might look for areas that are common to all of the students so the students get the idea that their problems are not unique and that they are shared by other people. The main focus was on student interests and concerns which were the grist for the mill of the group sessions.

In the first counselling session, the counsellor might begin to become aware of the life style of the individual: who is the active contributor? who is the receptor? who is the distractor? and other aspects of life style which might be focused upon mentally by the counsellor. Further in the life style, the counsellor might be able to identify a recipient type of person by observing his retreating



statements, his non-committal replies, having the group approach him continually. The powerful person might be observed in his tone of voice, his body posture, the emotional tone in which he makes his contribution, the way that he might cut off another person speaking, or throw cold water on some of the ideas that are expressed by another group member. The attention-getting life style might be noted in fidgeting, blurting out, dominating conversation, giggling, distracting. The "see me" type of behavior: the person who has a highly competitive life style might display such an attitude as "My problem tops yours."

Some specific reactions a counsellor might have--first in trying to identify life style and secondly to defuse certain distracting types of behavior:

- 1) This is the fifth time Billy has been trying to tell us something--can anyone guess what it might be?
- 2) John has been sitting there, not saying a thing, I wonder what's happening? (This gives John, as well as others, a chance to respond to certain aspects of behavior.)

The sideline life style might be descriptive of a person who wants to be in on the excitement but is not courageous enough to be in the middle of it, but rather on the fringe. In dealing with the power structured person, this person can be shown that his power can be re-structured into useful channels, that is to benefit others. While insight into goals is provided to one member of the group, other members begin to get insight into their own goals and motivation. Within all of this, encouragement is essential as it is in all corrective learning endeavors. We must constantly show children that they are





accepted. We do not necessarily have to agree with what the student says, but we must accept his right to be able to say what is bothering him. Comments like - I see you perceive this as a problem; or - that really bugs you doesn't it; or simply saying 'yes' when a negative feeling is expressed, tells the student that you understand him, that you hear him; but it doesn't tell a student that you necessarily agree with him. This protects or insures your integrity as well as that of the student. In understanding that you accept him, the student then allows you to help him re-structure his goals and to interpret his feelings to him. The idea of feeling inferior means the person assumes he has no useful place in society. This is one aspect of the group work that is most important and will be dealt with in later sessions.

## Session Two

The previous week's hand-outs were discussed in terms of things the counsellors conceived of as being useful, that they disagreed with, or that they wished to have discussed in terms of clarification.

The opening session then came into focus. A typical opening might go like this, "Almost everybody who comes to school experiences some difficulties - some greater and some less. Those with less may be in a better position to help those with greater difficulties but all are in the position to contribute. Are there any questions? or, What do you think of that?"

Within the initial session with the students there are certain things that might be handled in establishing a positive relationship with the members of the group.





- a) getting acquainted - it is essential that each person have some basic knowledge of other people in the group. Since the students are of one school, they probably have some knowledge, but it might be useful to get them to describe a little bit about themselves, the size of their family, maybe what their parents do in terms of occupation, and maybe a little bit about themselves--just enough to get them acquainted with one another. This would include the counsellor giving a short synopsis of some of his personal life. Hopefully, the counsellor's synopsis is kept brief.
- b) Why is the group here? A question like - would anyone like to guess why we are here? might be posed to the group. If there is action on this question, then it can be pursued without further counsellor probing. If there is no action - then the counsellor might say something about what might be expected from the group. A typical lead might be - what kind of things bug us about school? As much as possible the ball should be thrown to the students.
- c) How is the group to operate? Now this is a point that is better caught than taught. As much as possible, rules should not be spelled out but modelled by the counsellor. The way he handles questions and perhaps turns them back to the group will show the type of communication to be carried out within the group. e.g., Bill has asked about help with homework. Who would give an opinion on that? Jim would like an opinion on dress regulations. Bob, would you help out here?
- d) Establishment of the climate of the group which emphasizes:
1. acceptance of each person
  2. respect of his ideas
  3. freedom of expression



By showing respect for other members of the group, the counsellor will provide a model for the student to learn mutual respect.

e) Demonstrating the view that ideas expressed within the group are not treated lightly or frowned upon. Things that are brought up by the students really count. Once more, it is not necessary for the counsellor to agree with the positions expressed. However, it is essential for the counsellor to accept and to encourage acceptance of different points of view by other members. Comments like - "let's consider what George has to say" - doesn't imply agreement by the counsellor, nor does it imply that others must agree with it; all it expresses is - let's consider what the other person wants to say.

f) The counsellor is a friend and a helper. He is a contributing member of the group. He does not view group members as being "sick," or "less than" him in any way. Rather, he is an educator whose basic aim is to encourage all members of the group. He cooperates with pupils to develop an atmosphere in which all can grow. The effective counsellor cannot help but grow with the group, because that is a basic goal of group counselling, mutual growth.

The developmental educational group counselling of this study can be considered as involving four stages. These stages are for purposes of analysis and can be conceived of as foci or areas of emphasis. They are not discrete entities and two or more stages can take place in a single counselling session. Nor do all groups achieve the four stages. The four phases are (1) relationship, (2) exploration and analysis, (3) reorganization and interpretation, and (4) reorientation.



## Relationship

A positive contact and good rapport or relationship is deemed a necessary condition for any progress in counselling. The method of establishing relationship will vary with the personality and theoretical orientation of the counsellors in the study.

Combs, after ten years of research in the helping professions, concluded that in counselling and other helping relationships it is not the method but the relationship which is crucial (1969). The counsellor must learn to use himself as an instrument for growth and change. Several factors identifiable by Combs in an effective relationship are congruent with the goals of this study. The counsellor approaches the child from an internal rather than external frame of reference, is truly concerned about how things appear to others, is able to convey belief in others which enables them to feel worthwhile (encouragement), and can understand what the behavior means to the individual.

Winning the client's cooperation for the common task is a prerequisite for group or individual counselling. It is postulated that a cooperative relationship is, in itself, of corrective or therapeutic value. As the child comes to accept common concerns and goals with the counsellor and other members of the group his own goals undergo change. The group is structured to stimulate cooperation and for many of the children it is their first experience of a positive relationship, in an educational setting, with an adult who is willing and indeed demonstrates by his words and actions that he needs their interest and cooperation if progress is to be made. This approach conveys mutual trust and mutual respect. For example, the counsellor reflects





questions back to the group for their consideration.

It is important for the counsellor to be optimistic and to help replace an anticipation of failure with that of success, to change from a feeling of powerlessness to a feeling of powerfulness.

The counsellor begins with the problems the children are concerned with at this point in time, not necessarily the problems teachers, parents, or others are concerned with. The apperceptions of the children are seen as more important than those of others, or even the objective reality of the situation.

If Billy feels he has no chance, one works with that feeling, and not with an attempt to convince him of his ability as revealed by tests or other factors. One must help to clarify the child's basic perceptions of life. Counseling, when seen from this point of view, has meaning only insofar as there are common goals and a collaborative atmosphere (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell, 1970, pp. 115-116).

Group counselling can be seen as counselling the individual within a group. During the first session the children are made aware of the fact that many people have common problems such as homework, getting along with certain adults and friends, hours set for being in the house, and regulations about what to wear. When a child discusses a particular problem such as homework, the counsellor often shows the group how important their cooperation is by reflecting the problem back to the group for their consideration. This often results in concrete awareness of the commonality of certain problems.

Thus it is seen by the way the counsellor handles comments in the group that he truly does anticipate success, feels the childrens' comments are important, shows that the children have many concerns in common and that cooperation of all is important if the group is to benefit.



## Exploration and Analysis

During this phase the counsellor attempts to gain tentative understanding of the life styles of the children. He is aided in this by having the children describe their interests and concerns in three major areas of their lives: school, home, and relation with peers. The emphasis at this time is on keeping open and full communication so that the children will feel free to express their beliefs, values, and convictions. The child's position in the family constellation is an important source of information in understanding his life style. It is not merely his ordinal position in the birth order which is important, but how he, siblings, and parents perceive this position. Usually, in our competitive contemporary society, the children compete strongly for the attention and affection of parents and other significant adults. One of the most powerful influences on a child often is the brother or sister with whom he is in direct competition or who is his principal rival. Children also form alliances in families and often we find the child's cooperative sibling is the most similar in attitude in behavior, whereas the competitor is usually the most different. Where the competitor succeeds, the child gives up, and where the competitor fails, the child takes over. Encouraging the children to express a few wishes and exploring the reasons for the wishes is a simple projective technique for further understanding the child's ego ideal or self fantasy and helps in considering the reasons for his actions. Another useful approach is to determine what kind of animal or actor a child might choose and the reasons for it. All data gathered by the counsellor is used to form a tentative hypothesis of the child's goals and life style. The counsellor must be



willing to check and modify the hypothesis when necessary.

The analysis phase focuses on the purpose or goal of the child's behavior, not on the cause. For example, when observing young children having temper tantrums it can be noted that the behavior ceases rather abruptly when adults leave. Similarly, when a child returns home after suffering physical discomfort the volume of his crying often increases as he nears home.

It must be noted that during analysis emphasis is placed on discovering and developing strengths. There is a greater emphasis on the establishment of the child's assets rather than cataloguing deficits. This is necessary to maintain the positive counselling relationship and to give the child the courage to consider change.

#### Reorganization and Interpretation

Certainly some interpretation occurs during earlier stages but the focus during these stages is on creating specific awareness of behavior patterns and their goals and facilitating development of possible courses of action to modify previous areas of concern. Again, the emphasis is on the child's action and "for what purpose," not upon why this was done. The counsellor and other group members confront, in a positive, constructive, supporting way, specific behavior and goals of the behavior. He is thus helped to understand his life style. This does not require a deep emotional experience. Emotions often hamper or cloud possible understanding of the purpose of behavior. Often they are an "excuse" to perform certain behaviors not usually acceptable to society or the individual or to avoid responsible action. It must be





noted that the child is never told what to do but is informed in a tentative way about the purpose of behavior. The child is then free to draw his own conclusions. Oftentimes children are more motivated to accept and act upon interpretations when they come from peers in the group than when they come from the counsellor. It is essential for the counsellor to show by his verbal and nonverbal behavior that he will not be discouraged and that he is not overanxious for the counselee's success. Many facets of modern life in general and the educational system in particular can easily lead to discouragement and it is not unusual for the counsellor to become discouraged, rather than being able to encourage the pupils.

Insight is a necessary condition but it must be followed by a corresponding modification of behavior. Blocher (1968) agrees:

The facilitation of human effectiveness is a primary goal for developmental counselling and obviously implies the acquisition of new instrumental behaviors and has higher priority than the development of client insights (p. 169).

Further, Glicken (1968) has applied the rational-emotive theory of Albert Ellis to this area by indicating that once children have obtained insight into their irrational thoughts and behavior they are given specific homework in the form of new rational behaviors or experiences to overcome the difficulty.

When a group member makes a commitment to modify a certain behavior and he does not carry it out, a state of tension or cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) develops and he will try to alleviate this by bringing his behavior more in line with the commitment he made in the group. Blocher (1968) refers to the commitment made by clients in developmental counselling in which they engage in tryouts of new behaviors as develop-





mental contracts.

A central assumption of developmental counseling is that when the client engages, even tentatively, in a new and more effective pattern of coping behavior, the resulting change in the nature of his transactions with the environment will not only reinforce and so maintain the new behavior, but will also mediate in positive ways the more general internal attitude structure (pp. 169-170).

This may be considered as further support in postulating attitude change (i.e., in felt powerlessness) as a result of this phase of counselling.

#### Reorientation

Reorientation is intimately tied in with stage three. In this phase the group focus is more on general strategies and modes of behavior for coping with conflict situations (i.e., general ways of dealing with teachers and authority figures, rather than specific behavior patterns). Here the counsellor and the group help each person to see that in certain areas they are functioning in ways that will eventually cause problems. The child is able to see the goals of his behavior and is able to decide which way he will function. The realization of goals and choices is a "helping" or therapeutic factor.

It was postulated that the reorientation phase could be accomplished by a variety of counselling orientations. For example, in the client-centered view the counsellor would not confront the client with interpretations of the goals of his behavior; rather, the counsellor would facilitate an atmosphere in which the client is free and encouraged to do it for himself.



Another positive benefit of group counselling occurs when one member gains insight and prepares to initiate a behavioral change (reorientate); other members share in this by identifying common elements in their individual situations.

To summarize, a number of these phases may occur in close contiguity. As the student presents a problem the relationship is being developed by the responses of the counsellor in his acceptance of the student's difficulties and/or redirecting of it to the group for consideration. As the problem is explored the counsellor and/or other members may express the goals of the behavior and suggest plausible reorientation behavior strategies. During the entire process the counsellor's verbal and nonverbal behaviors convey optimism and create an atmosphere of anticipated success. The counsellor refuses to become discouraged and encourages the pupils by showing his respect for them and his confidence that they will be capable of cooperating or working together to help each other develop more effective ways of acting.



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## APPENDIX B

### QUESTIONNAIRE





## APPENDIX B

DIRECTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Before handing out the opinion survey and answer sheets to the pupils please read aloud the instructions which are printed in capital letters.
2. OPINIONS OR IDEAS PUPILS HAVE ABOUT THE WORLD THEY LIVE IN ARE IMPORTANT IN HELPING PEOPLE IMPROVE THEIR SCHOOL EXPERIENCES.
3. YOU CAN HELP US BY GIVING YOUR IDEAS ABOUT THE QUESTIONS WHICH WILL BE PASSED OUT TO YOU.
4. YOUR OPINIONS MAY BE VALUABLE IN HELPING MANY OTHER PUPILS, SO WE ENCOURAGE ALL OF YOU TO ANSWER THE QUESTIONS. HOWEVER, IF ANY OF YOU DO NOT WISH TO SHARE YOUR IDEAS YOU DO NOT HAVE TO ANSWER THE QUESTIONS.
5. THIS IS NOT A TEST.
6. THERE ARE NO WRONG ANSWERS. WHAT YOU THINK ABOUT EACH QUESTION IS THE RIGHT ANSWER FOR YOU.
7. Hand out the opinion survey and answer sheets (except for census data, page 10).
8. PLEASE PRINT YOUR NAME, SCHOOL, AGE, GRADE, Circle BOY or GIRL, AT THE TOP OF YOUR ANSWER SHEET. (Please demonstrate proper procedure on the blackboard. Allow enough time for pupils to complete this accurately.)
9. PLEASE ANSWER EVERY QUESTION.
10. ANSWER EACH QUESTION THE WAY YOU FEEL ABOUT IT, NOT THE WAY YOU THINK OTHER PEOPLE MIGHT WANT YOU TO FEEL.
11. DO NOT SPEND A LONG TIME THINKING ABOUT AN ANSWER.
12. YOUR ANSWER SHEET WILL NOT BE SHOWN TO ANYONE IN THIS SCHOOL.
13. PLEASE READ THE SENTENCE SILENTLY AS I READ IT OUT LOUD.
14. BE SURE TO FOLLOW ALONG WITH ME. DO NOT GO AHEAD.
15. SECTION A. QUESTIONS 1 THROUGH 34 ARE IN THIS SECTION. PICK THE ANSWER WHICH BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU FEEL.



16. MARK YOUR ANSWER SHEET LIKE THIS (Show on chalk board). EXAMPLE:  
I AM NOW LIVING IN THE CITY OF A. EDMONTON  
B. CALGARY    A     B 
17. MAKE SURE YOU ANSWER EVERY QUESTION.
18. PLEASE USE ONLY "H" OR "HB" PENCIL FOR MARKING ANSWER SHEETS.



OPINION SURVEY

1. If a teacher passes you to the next grade, would it probably be
  - A. because she liked you, or
  - B. because of the work you did?
2. When you do well on a test at school, is it more likely to be
  - A. because you studied for it, or
  - B. because the test was especially easy?
3. When you have trouble understanding something in school, is it usually
  - A. because the teacher didn't explain it clearly, or
  - B. because you didn't listen carefully?
4. When you read a story and can't remember much of it, is it usually
  - A. because the story wasn't well written, or
  - B. because you weren't interested in the story?
5. Suppose your parents say you are doing well in school. Is this likely to happen
  - A. because your school work is good, or
  - B. because they are in a good mood?
6. Suppose you did better than usual in a subject at school. Would it probably happen
  - A. because you tried harder, or
  - B. because someone helped you?
7. When you lose at a game of cards or checkers, does it usually happen
  - A. because the other player is good at the game, or
  - B. because you don't play well?
8. Suppose a person doesn't think you are very bright or clever
  - A. can you make him change his mind if you try to, or
  - B. are there some people who will think you're not very bright no matter what you do?
9. If you solve a puzzle, is it
  - A. because it wasn't a very hard puzzle, or
  - B. because you worked on it carefully?





A ===== B =====

10. If a boy or girl tells you that you are dumb, is it more likely that they say that
  - A. because they are mad at you, or
  - B. because what you did really wasn't very bright?
11. Suppose you study to become a teacher, scientist, or doctor and you fail. Do you think this would happen
  - A. because you didn't work hard enough, or
  - B. because you needed some help, and other people didn't give it to you?
12. When you learn something quickly in school, is it usually
  - A. because you paid close attention, or
  - B. because the teacher explained it clearly?
13. If a teacher says to you, "Your work is fine," is it
  - A. something teachers usually say to encourage pupils, or
  - B. because you did a good job?
14. When you find it hard to work arithmetic or math problems at school, is it
  - A. because you didn't study well enough before you tried them, or
  - B. because the teacher gave problems that were too hard?
15. When you forget something you heard in class, is it
  - A. because the teacher didn't explain it very well, or
  - B. because you didn't try very hard to remember?
16. Suppose you weren't sure about the answer to a question your teacher asked you, but your answer turned out to be right. Is it likely to happen
  - A. because she wasn't as particular as usual, or
  - B. because you gave the best answer you could think of?
17. When you read a story and remember most of it, is it usually
  - A. because you were interested in the story, or
  - B. because the story was well written?



A        B  
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18. If your parents tell you you're acting silly and not thinking clearly, is it more likely to be
- A. because of something you did, or
  - B. because they happen to be feeling cranky?
19. When you don't do well on a test at school, is it
- A. because the test was especially hard, or
  - B. because you didn't study for it?
20. When you win at a game of cards or checkers, does it happen
- A. because you play really well, or
  - B. because the other person doesn't play well?
21. If people think you're bright or clever, is it
- A. because they happen to like you, or
  - B. because you usually act that way?
22. If a teacher didn't pass you to the next grade, would it probably be
- A. because she "had it in for you," or
  - B. because your school work wasn't good enough?
23. Suppose you don't do as well as usual in a subject at school. Would it probably happen
- A. because you weren't as careful as usual, or
  - B. because somebody bothered you and kept you from working?
24. If a boy or girl tells you that you are bright, is it usually
- A. because you thought up a good idea, or
  - B. because they like you?
25. Suppose you become a famous teacher, scientist or doctor. Do you think this would happen
- A. because other people helped you when you needed it, or
  - B. because you worked very hard?
26. Suppose your parents say you aren't doing well in your school work. Is this likely to happen more
- A. because your work isn't very good, or
  - B. because they are feeling cranky?



A    -----    B    -----  
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27. Suppose you are showing a friend how to play a game and he has trouble with it. Would that happen
- A. because he wasn't able to understand how to play, or
  - B. because you couldn't explain it well.
28. When you find it easy to work arithmetic or math problems at school, is it usually
- A. because the teacher gave you especially easy problems, or
  - B. because you studied your book well before you tried them?
29. When you remember something you heard in class, is it usually
- A. because you tried hard to remember, or
  - B. because the teacher explained it well?
30. If you can't work a puzzle, is it more likely to happen
- A. because you are not especially good at working puzzles, or
  - B. because the instructions weren't written clearly enough?
31. If your parents tell you that you are bright or clever, is it more likely
- A. because they are feeling good, or
  - B. because of something you did?
32. Suppose you are explaining how to play a game to a friend and he learns quickly. Would that happen more often
- A. because you explained it well, or
  - B. because he was able to understand it?
33. Suppose you're not sure about the answer to a question your teacher asks you and the answer you give turns out to be wrong. Is it likely to happen
- A. because she was more particular than usual, or
  - B. because you answered too quickly?
34. If a teacher says to you, "Try to do better," would it be
- A. because this is something she might say to get pupils to try harder, or
  - B. because your work wasn't as good as usual?





SECTION B

- DIRECTIONS: 1. Questions 35 through 63 are in this section.  
 2. For each question choose the answer YOU believe to be more true.  
 3. For some questions you may believe both answers are true or that no answer is true. For these questions choose the answer that comes closest to what you believe to be true. Be sure to pick an answer for EVERY question. (Either an "A" or "B")

Example: A. I am now living in the City of Edmonton  
 B. I am now living in the City of Calgary

A        B         
~~XXXX~~ ~~XXXX~~

35. A. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.  
 B. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
36. A. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.  
 B. People's troubles come from the mistakes they make.
37. A. One of the big reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in the government.  
 B. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to keep them from happening.
38. A. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.  
 B. Unfortunately, no matter how hard a pupil tries people often don't realize how good he is.
39. A. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.  
 B. Most pupils don't realize how much their marks depend on good luck.
40. A. Without good luck a person cannot be a strong leader.  
 B. Smart people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of the chances they had.



A ----- B -----  
-----

41. A. No matter how hard you try, some people just don't like you.  
B. People who can't get others to like them, don't understand how to get along with others.
42. A. What you are born with plays the biggest part in making you the kind of person you are.  
B. It is what happens to you in life that makes you the kind of person you are.
43. A. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.  
B. Leaving things to luck has never worked as well as when I made up my mind to do something.
44. A. If a student is well prepared there is seldom if ever an unfair test.  
B. Many times studying for tests is useless because often the questions are not about the work you did in class.
45. A. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.  
B. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
46. A. The ordinary person can have an influence in what the government decides to do.  
B. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
47. A. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.  
B. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad luck anyhow.
48. A. There are certain people who are just no good.  
B. There is some good in everybody.
49. A. In my case getting what I want depends on me and has little or nothing to do with luck.  
B. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin for heads or tails.



A \_\_\_\_\_ B \_\_\_\_\_  
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50. A. Who gets to be boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
- B. Getting people to do the right thing depends on how smart you are, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
51. A. Most of us have no control over what happens in our government and country.
- B. By taking an active part in affairs that have to do with their government and country people can control what happens in the world.
52. A. Most people don't realize how much their lives are controlled by things that happen by chance.
- B. There really is no such thing as "luck".
53. A. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
- B. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
54. A. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
- B. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
55. A. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
- B. Most troubles happen because of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
56. A. If we try hard enough we can get rid of dishonest people in our government.
- B. It is difficult for people to have much control over things people in government do when they are in power.
57. A. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the marks they give.
- B. The marks I get depend on how hard I study.
58. A. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
- B. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.



A      B  
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-----

59. A. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
- B. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important part in my life.
60. A. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
- B. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people; if they like you, they like you.
61. A. There is too much time spent on sports in our school.
- B. Team sports are an excellent way to build a person's character.
62. A. What happens to me is my own doing.
- B. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over what is happening in my life.
63. A. Most of the time I can't understand why the people in government behave the way they do.
- B. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government in their country as well as in their city or town.

DIRECTIONS: 1. Questions 64 through 93 are included in this section.

2. Show what you think of each question by marking one of the five answers like this:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A -----	B -----	C -----	D -----	E -----

- if you strongly agree blacken in guideline ----- "A"
- if you agree less strongly blacken in guideline ----- "B"
- if you don't care either way blacken in guideline ----- "C"
- if you disagree blacken in guideline ----- "D"
- if you disagree more strongly blacken in guideline ----- "E"

64. I sometimes talk about things I know nothing about.
65. There are so many rules nowadays that there is not much chance for me to make up my own mind even about things that are my own business.





Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A _____	B _____	C _____	D _____	E _____

66. There is little chance to get ahead on a job unless a person is lucky.
67. Nowadays it is hard for people to trust each other.
68. These days there is nothing we can be sure of.
69. I sometimes gossip.
70. People don't think my ideas are important when big decisions are to be made.
71. I have never been late for an appointment or for school.
72. People's ideas change so much that I wonder if we will ever have anything to depend on.
73. Most people in government are not really interested in the problems of the ordinary man.
74. Things change so much today that there just are not any definite rules to live by.
75. I would always declare everything at the customs office, at the border, even if I knew that I would never get caught.
76. The future looks very discouraging.
77. Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.
78. Of all the people I know there are some whom I definitely do not like.
79. These days a person does not know whom he can count on.
80. Most people today seldom feel lonely.
81. I occasionally have thoughts and ideas that I would not like other people to know about.
82. Most people do not really care what happens to the next fellow.
83. In spite of what some people say, things are getting worse for the average man, not better.
84. All my habits are good ones.



Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A	B	C	D	E
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

- 85. There is little or nothing I can do towards keeping an atomic war from happening.
- 86. People were better off in the old days when everyone knew just how to act.
- 87. There are so many decisions that have to be made today that sometimes I could just "blow up".
- 88. Often, to get what you want you have to do things that are wrong.
- 89. Sometimes I feel all alone in the world.
- 90. It is frightening to be responsible for the development of a little child.
- 91. The trouble with the world today is that most people really do not believe in anything.
- 92. Once in a while I lose my temper and get angry.
- 93. If I say I will do something, I always keep my promise, no matter how hard it might be to do so.



## APPENDIX C

### FEEDBACK





# FEEDBACK

1. I FOUND THE SMALL GROUP COMMUNICATIONS MEETINGS:
  - a) very worthwhile
  - b) of some worth
  - c) can't really say one way or the other
  - d) not worthwhile
2. OUR GROUP HAD:
  - a) just enough members
  - b) too many members
  - c) not enough members
3. IF I HAD A CHANCE TO PARTICIPATE (TAKE PART) IN MORE SMALL GROUP COMMUNICATIONS MEETINGS:
  - a) I definitely would
  - b) I probably would
  - c) I don't know if I would
  - d) I probably would not
  - e) I definitely would not
4. TEACHERS SHOULD BE INVITED TO BE IN OUR GROUPS:
  - a) for all sessions (meetings)
  - b) for some sessions (meetings)
  - c) for no sessions (meetings)
5. WOULD YOU LIKE PARENTS TO TAKE PART IN THE MEETINGS?
  - a) yes
  - b) no
  - c) don't know
6. THINGS I "GOT OUT" OF THE GROUP MEETINGS:
 

Quite a bit	A little	Not at all
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  - a) I got a chance to say what I wanted about school and other things
  - b) I learned how to listen and understand other kids more (better)
  - c) I learned how to talk about things that bother me or make me angry



	Quite a bit	A little	Not at all
d) I learned how to help other kids when they have a problem			
e) I learned to understand why kids do the things they do			
f) I learned to understand better why teachers do what they do			
g) I learned that most of us kids have many of the same kinds of concerns or things that bother us			
h) I learned how to do more things at school without having to ask a teacher			
i) I learned how to cooperate (work with) other kids in getting things done at school			
	Increased	Not Changed	Decreased
7. The amount of influence or control I have over getting along with other kids has			
8. The amount of influence or control I have over the marks I get on tests has			
9. The amount of influence or control I have over how I get along with teachers has			
10. The amount of influence or control I have over how my parents and I get along has			



APPENDIX D

CHI SQUARE FOR COUNSELLED  
AND PLACEBO GROUPS  
ON QUESTIONS 7, 8, 9, AND 10 OF FEEDBACK



APPENDIX D

CHI SQUARE FOR COUNSELLED  
AND PLACEBO GROUPS  
ON QUESTIONS 7, 8, 9, AND 10 OF FEEDBACK

	Frequency		
	Increased	Not Increased	
Counselled	58	32	90
Placebo	2	12	14
	60	44	104

Chi square = 10.518; df = 1; p < .05

QUESTION 7: The amount of influence or control I have over getting along with other kids has

	Frequency		
	Increased	Not Increased	
Counselled	39	51	90
Placebo	5	9	14
	44	60	104

Chi square = 0.061; df = 1; p = 0.80

QUESTION 8: The amount of influence or control I have over the marks I get on tests has

	Frequency		
	Increased	Not Increased	
Counselled	49	41	90
Placebo	5	9	14
	54	50	104

Chi square = 1.035; df = 1; p = 0.31

QUESTION 9: The amount of influence or control I have over how I get along with teachers has





	Frequency		
	Increased	Not Increased	
Counselled	53	37	90
Placebo	3	11	14
	56	48	104

Chi square = 5.42;  $df = 1$ ;  $p < .05$

QUESTION 10: The amount of influence or control I have over how my parents and I get along has

















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